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DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

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Reporting Clauses in Czech and in English

Uvozovací věty v češtině a v angličtině

Prohlášení:

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.....

Miroslav Sedláček

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Poděkování

Srdečně děkuji za vedení práce, opakované podrobné čtení a četné připomínky paní prof. PhDr. Libuši Duškové, DrSc., vedoucí této diplomové práce.

Klíčová slova:

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Abstrakt

Diplomová práce se zabývá kontrastivním popisem uvozovacích vět v současné původní české a americké próze (publikované a oceněné v období 2010–2015). Zkoumané uvozovací věty se omezují na přímou řeč značenou konvenčními interpunkčními prostředky.

Na základě šesti literárních děl, tří amerických a tří českých, zkoumá slovesa uvozující přímou řeč, jejich rozmanitost, povahu podmětu v uvozovacích větách, rozvití ve formě příslovečného určení, přítomnost předmětu vyjadřujícího adresáta a pozici uvozovací věty vzhledem k přímé řeči. Všímá si rovněž případů nevyjádření uvozovací věty a některých přechodných forem. Výsledné hodnoty porovnává s translatologickou studií na totéž téma.

Výsledky práce potvrzují snahu o rozmanitost v českých uvozovacích větách dosahovanou různými prostředky a snahu o nenápadnost v anglických uvozovacích větách.

Práce se snaží přispět k lepšímu pochopení povahy uvozovacích vět. Poznatky zde nastíněné mohou posloužit zejména překladatelům a autorům krásné literatury.

Abstract

This diploma thesis presents a contrastive description of reporting clauses in present-day original Czech and American fiction (published and awarded in 2010-2015). The examined reported clauses are limited to direct speech marked with a conventional means of punctuation.

Based on six samples of fiction, three American ones and three Czech ones, this thesis examines reporting verbs, their diversity, the nature of the subject of reporting clauses, modification by adjuncts, the presence of an object expressing the addressee and the position of reporting clauses with respect to their reported clauses. It also scrutinizes the instances of leaving the reporting clause unexpressed and of certain transient forms. The ascertained values are then compared with a translatology paper on the same topic.

The findings of this thesis confirm that while Czech reporting clauses strive for diversity by a number of means, English reporting clauses strive for inconspicuousness.

This thesis attempts to contribute to a better understanding of reporting clauses. The outlined findings may be helpful especially to translators and fiction writers.

CONTENT

| | | |
|---|--|----|
| 1 | Introduction..... | 9 |
| 2 | Theoretical background | 11 |
| | 2.1 The purpose of this thesis | 11 |
| | 2.2 Definitions..... | 11 |
| | 2.2.1 Fiction | 11 |
| | 2.2.2 Reported speech | 11 |
| | 2.2.3 Direct speech..... | 12 |
| | 2.3 Reporting clause..... | 16 |
| | 2.3.1 Diachronic perspective..... | 17 |
| | 2.3.2 Criteria for a reporting clause | 18 |
| | 2.4 Writer's manuals and prescriptive tradition..... | 22 |
| | 2.5 English-Czech contrastive studies of reporting clauses..... | 24 |
| 3 | Material and Method..... | 28 |
| | 3.1 Parameters..... | 28 |
| | 3.2 Material | 29 |
| | 3.3 Method | 30 |
| | 3.4 Unit of the analysis | 30 |
| 4 | Analysis..... | 32 |
| | 4.1 Reporting clause..... | 32 |
| | 4.2 The presence or absence of a reporting clause..... | 32 |
| | 4.2.1 Multiple reported/reporting clauses | 36 |
| 5 | True reporting clause | 38 |
| | 5.1 Syntactic complexity..... | 38 |
| | 5.2 Lexical diversity in reporting verbs | 40 |
| | 5.2.1 Excluded examples | 41 |
| | 5.2.2 <i>Say, ask</i> , and "other" | 42 |
| | 5.2.3 <i>Ask</i> and its competitors | 43 |
| | 5.2.4 "Other" verbs | 45 |
| | 5.2.5 Lexical diversity in reporting verbs – comparison with Pípalová's findings . | 49 |
| | 5.3 The subject of a true reporting clause | 49 |
| | 5.3.1 Comparison with Pípalová's findings | 52 |
| | 5.4 The manner adjunct..... | 53 |
| | 5.4.1 Competition in indicating the manner of speaking: the manner adjunct, or | 57 |
| | the verb | 57 |
| | 5.4.2 Other means of expressing the manner of speaking | 58 |
| | 5.5 The object referring to the addressee, and the vocative..... | 59 |
| | 5.6 The position of a true reporting clause | 62 |
| | 5.6.1 Comparison with Pípalová's results..... | 66 |
| | 5.6.2 Word order and the position of a true reporting clause | 66 |
| | 5.6.3 Syntactic complexity and the position of the true reporting clause | 69 |
| 6 | No reporting clause | 71 |
| | 6.1 An uninterrupted string of direct speech with no reporting clause..... | 79 |
| 7 | False reporting clause | 82 |
| | 7.1 Position of a false reporting clause | 85 |
| 8 | Conclusion | 87 |
| | References and Sources..... | 90 |
| | References | 90 |
| | Online references | 91 |
| | Sources | 91 |

| | |
|----------------|------|
| Resumé | 92 |
| Appendix | i |
| Egan | i |
| Johnson | vi |
| Tartt | xii |
| Svěrák | xvii |
| Šindelka | xxi |
| Tučková | xxv |

Index of Tables

| | |
|---|----|
| Table 1: Presence or absence of a (true) reporting clause in the examined material | 33 |
| Table 2: True reporting clause, false reporting clause and no reporting clause – overview | 36 |
| Table 3: Percentage of the reporting clauses with the simplest possible structure in the examined texts | 40 |
| Table 4: Distribution of the reporting verbs in the analysed sample | 42 |
| Table 5: Distribution of reporting verbs in respect to the questions in reported clause | 44 |
| Table 6: Subject types in the analysed texts in respect of diversity | 52 |
| Table 7: Distribution of manner adjuncts expressing the manner of speaking or the state of the speaker in the examined texts – according to the form | 55 |
| Table 8: Distribution of manner adjuncts in the examined texts – in regard to the individual reporting verbs | 56 |
| Table 9: Verbs expressing the manner of speaking vs. manner adjuncts | 58 |
| Table 10: Distribution of the vocative and non-obligatory objects expressing the addressee in the true reporting clause with a genuine reporting verb | 61 |
| Table 11: Distribution of true reporting clauses in terms of their position | 65 |
| Table 12: Percentage of initial true reporting clauses with inverted word order | 67 |
| Table 13: Percentage of non-initial true reporting clauses with inverted word order | 68 |
| Table 14: The syntactically simplest possible structure reflecting the position of true reporting clauses | 69 |
| Table 15: Distribution of direct speech with no reporting clause included in the examined material in respect to the number of participants or potential speakers present on the scene .. | 72 |
| Table 16: Distribution of direct speech in 2 person scenes and 3 or more person scenes with no reporting clause with respect to all instances of direct speech in 2 person scenes or 3 or more person scenes respectively | 73 |
| Table 17: Turn-taking in direct speech with no reporting clause in 2 person scenes | 76 |
| Table 18: Distribution of vocatives and false reporting clauses across paragraphs in direct speech with no reporting clause | 77 |
| Table 19: False reporting clauses within the paragraph and across paragraph boundary | 78 |
| Table 20: The longest uninterrupted string of direct speech with no reporting clause | 80 |
| Table 21: Breakdown of all the uninterrupted strings of DS with no RC according to the number of paragraphs | 80 |
| Table 22: Distribution of various semantic aspects in false reporting clauses | 84 |
| Table 23: Distribution of false reporting clauses in terms of their positions | 86 |

List of Abbreviations

| | |
|-----|----------------------------|
| 2PS | two person scene |
| 3PS | three or more person scene |
| DS | direct speech |
| FRC | false reporting clause |
| RC | reporting clause |
| TRC | true reporting clause |

1 Introduction

In this thesis, the reader is invited to observe the mesmerising variety of strategies employed in reporting clauses. These tags or frames, as they are also often called, appearing after about three quarters of all reported clauses in the samples examined in this thesis, can be simply an endless repetition of the same pattern or can be very diverse. They can actually merge with the narration into curious devices made of what seems to be the narration proper while serving the function of reporting clauses. Even if the reporting clause is absent from the direct speech, questions can be raised: why here if not elsewhere?

Reporting clauses are fascinating in that they bridge the gap between the narrator's voice and the character's voices. They can be found in most pieces of fiction, in fact, almost wherever there is a dialogue. Different as any two pieces of fiction may be, reporting clauses are one of the features most of them share, and reporting clauses also show similarities greater than any other part of fiction writing.

It is the objective of this thesis to provide a complex and contrastive description of reporting clauses in Czech and in English. For this purpose, a set of three original recent Czech and three original recent American novels, awarded with either Pulitzer Prize for Fiction or Magnesia Litera Book Award, was selected and parts of these texts, usually the first chapters, were analysed qualitatively from a number of perspectives to provide a comprehensive image of how reporting clauses behave in the present-day Czech and English fiction. Unlike similar studies in this field, this thesis does not examine translations. This thesis does, however, provide a comparison with a translatology study by Pípalová (2012), and thus it seeks to verify and corroborate the results obtained in both her paper and in this thesis.

The thesis attempts to cover a wide range of phenomena, such as the reasons for omitting reporting clauses, the syntactic complexity of reporting clauses, lexical diversity in reporting verbs, position of reporting clauses, etc.; and to compare them systematically between the two languages, Czech and English. This comparison seems extremely potent as the differences in strategies in the two languages seem to hint at some of the rules on which the use of reporting clauses is based.

The comparison can also have a practical impact on translating fiction from one language into the other, especially in that it has the potential to either verify or disprove numerous studies on reporting clauses in translated fiction texts.

After this introduction, Chapter 2 presents a summary of findings on Czech and English reporting clauses to be found in dedicated literature. Chapter 3 introduces the material on

which this thesis is based. These excerpted reporting clauses are further divided in Chapter 4 into three groups which are then dealt with respectively, in Chapters 5, 6 and 7. The thesis is also provided with an appendix where the examined texts are included for the reader's convenience.

2 Theoretical background

2.1 The purpose of this thesis

The aim of this thesis is to present a contrastive analysis of how reporting clauses in direct speech are treated in contemporary original (i.e. non-translated) fiction in Czech and English, to identify trends in and differences between those two languages and their literary traditions, and to compare the findings with those presented in dedicated literature, primarily in Pípalová's paper (2012), which concentrates on reporting clauses in translated fiction.

2.2 Definitions

Before the analysis commences, several key terms need to be examined.

2.2.1 Fiction

First, it is the term fiction or prose, which is used throughout the thesis. To define these two terms in an exact manner is far beyond the scope of this thesis. Here it refers to any text which the author or publisher presents to the reader as a piece of fiction or prose and the reader accepts it as such. The typical qualities of an English fictional/prosaic text are adduced in Leech and Short (1981). Fiction is considered a realistic presentation of mock reality, including features such as credibility, verisimilitude, authenticity, objectivity and vividness (ibid., p. 148). Fiction writers use special and various methods to render this mock reality, one of them being direct speech. Krčmová (in Čechová, 2008, pp. 306-308) emphasises the fact that a prosaic text typically consists of two elements: a monological and a dialogical part¹. The monological part is identifiable as the narrator's speech, while the dialogical sequence consists mostly of dialogues among characters in form of reported speech. She also summarizes the progress in modern Czech fiction leading from strict separation of these two parts to mixing and merging them.

2.2.2 Reported speech

Reported speech is a common form of reproducing a dialogical part (not only) in fiction. Contrary to its name, it is not limited to speaking only, but covers also writing and unspoken thoughts. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1023; also Bečka, 1992, pp. 269-280).

¹ Hrbáček (1994, p. 87) suggests the term monologue and dialogue sequences ("*monologické a dialogické sekvence*"). The difference between the two sequences is, according to Hrbáček, that a dialogue sequence is based on the relationship between the stimulus and the reaction, whereas the monologue sequences rely on linking the utterances and associational relations.

Traditionally, two types of reported speech are distinguished in both languages – direct and indirect speech. As pointed out by Doležel (Doležel, 1960), the boundaries between clear-cut direct and indirect speech were gradually blurred in modern fiction and new concepts were created to describe the new forms of reported speech: free direct speech (*neznačená/nevlastní řeč přímá*²), free indirect speech (*polopřímá řeč*), and mixed speech (*smíšená řeč*)³. Both free indirect and free direct speech are discussed in Huddleston and Pullum (2002) as well as Quirk et al. (1985), so called mixed speech is missing in their conceptions. The typical Czech particle “*prý*” is another means of blurring the boundary between direct and indirect speech. There are also many other conceptions of reported speech, less traditional than those adduced in this paragraph. A short overview of these conceptions is provided by Pípalová (2012, pp. 76-78).

Free direct speech or free indirect speech both (including mixed speech) represent a transient stage between the two poles of reported speech – direct speech and indirect speech. These two polar concepts differ not only in their form (although it is possible to transform indirect speech to direct speech and vice versa), but in their respective functions as well as syntactic properties. For this thesis, it is the concept of direct speech which is of utmost importance. For the sake of convenience, it is described in contrast to indirect speech.

2.2.3 Direct speech

2.2.3.1 *Formal point of view*

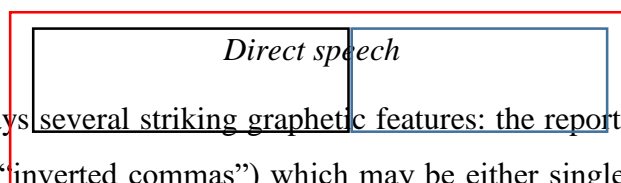
Formally, direct speech typically consists of two parts, with one of the parts usually containing a verb of speaking and identifying the author of the citation which follows or precedes (or both), the other one reproducing the speech or thoughts of the speaker. The terminology used for these two parts varies; in this thesis, following terms are used: the part usually containing a verb of speaking and identifying the author of the citation is referred to as “**reporting clause**” (in accordance with Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1020, and unlike Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1023, who chose the term “reporting frame”; in Czech stylistics, the predominant term is “*uvozovací věta*”, although more recent articles prefer the newly coined term “*(uvozovací) rámec*” (e.g. Adam, 2003, p. 125)), the part where the actual speech or thought is reproduced is called “**reported clause**” (again, this terminology complies to Quirk et al., while Huddleston and Pullum opted for the term “reported speech”; Czech stylistic

² These Czech terms are used in Čechová (2008, pp. 306-308).

³ Adam (2003, p. 125) also uses the term *řečová aluze* (speech allusion) for mixed speech.

tradition uses the term “přímá řeč” or “vlastní přímá řeč”⁴). For the reader’s convenience, a graphical diagram follows, illustrating the terms permeating this whole thesis. The sentence itself is selected from the examined material (Johnson, 2012, p. 9).

“Are you Pak Jun Do?” he asked.
Reported clause *Reporting clause*



Direct speech displays several striking graphetic features: the reported clause is framed by quotation marks (also “inverted commas”) which may be either single or double, usually according to the house style of the particular publishing house or the author’s preferential choice. In Czech tradition, the use of punctuation relating to direct speech is prescribed strictly by The Institute of the Czech Language (*Ústav pro jazyk český*).

The main difference between the English and the Czech tradition is the shape of the quotation marks and the variety of allowed quotation marks – double commas, simple commas, French style double quotation marks (or even French style single quotation marks).⁵ Some fiction writers both in English and Czech prefer yet another set of quotation marks – such as an M-dash; this is also the case of Tučková, one of the texts analysed in this thesis.

Another difference between Czech and English punctuation relates to an initial reporting clause followed by a reported clause. In this case, the recommended approach in Czech – unlike in English (Quirk, 1985, p. 1620) – is to use a colon rather than a comma to indicate the boundary between the two clauses.

Indirect speech, from the formal point of view, is rather inconspicuous as it lacks any distinct graphetic features. Typically, it consists of a main clause containing a verb of speaking and identifying the speaker and the reported citation constructed as a dependent clause. When shifting the reported content from direct speech to indirect speech, several changes happen on the linguistic level. These changes as observed by Leech and Short (1981, p. 256) may occur: a) removal of quotation marks and subsequent reinterpretation of the relationship between the reported and reporting clause; b) addition of a subordinator (*that*); c) change of personal pronoun, usually to 3rd person; d) backshift and also change of certain temporal adverbs (such as *now* to *then*); e) close deictic adverbs (such as *here*) may be

⁴ See e.g. Daneš et al. (1987, p. 503); as well as Bečka (1992, pp. 269-280).

⁵ See “Uvozovky.” *Jazyková poradna ÚJČ AV ČR*: Internetová jazyková příručka, 2009. Web. 20 May 2015. <<http://prirucka.ujc.cas.cz/?id=162&dotaz=p%C5%99%C3%ADm%C3%A1%20%C5%99e%C4%8D>>

replaced with their more remote counterparts (such as *there*); and f) certain verbs indicating movement change (such as *come* to *go*).

2.2.3.2 *Semantic point of view*

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1023) argue that while direct speech conveys the exact wording of a citation, using indirect speech implies that the overall meaning rather than the exact form is reproduced. This seems not to be intended as a judgement about the verisimilitudinal value of the citation in question, but rather it follows from the consequences of the shift as mentioned in Section 2.2.3.1. No quotation can be called exact if – among other changes – the personal pronoun for 1st person singular is obligatorily shifted to 3rd person singular (e.g. “*I like it.*” to *He says that he likes it.*). Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1025) also add that authors often use indirect speech to signal that a summary and an abbreviated version of the original utterance is provided. Daneš et al. (1987, p. 503) note that if indirect speech is opted for, the speaker does not quote the information (as in direct speech), but rather gives an account of it. On the other hand, Pípalová (2012, p. 80) questions – and justly so – the authenticity of the quoted information in direct speech, claiming, “Direct speech portions featuring in fiction, for instance, are not meant to guarantee authenticity, but solely to suggest it stylistically.”

2.2.3.3 *Syntactic point of view*

As far as direct speech is concerned, syntax is traditionally interested mostly in the nature of the relationship between the reporting clause and the reported clause in direct speech, as well as in their indirect speech counterparts. In this point, opinions as presented in various grammars vary.

The case of indirect speech seems easier. Huddleston and Pullum (2002), Quirk et al. (1985) and Daneš et al. (1987) all agree that indirect speech is most often a case of syntactic subordination. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1027) argue, however, that the conception of syntactic subordination is valid only if the reporting clause is embedded. They also distinguish non-embedded indirect speech, such as *She lived alone, she said.*, which is understood as free indirect speech in other conceptions. In this example, Huddleston and Pullum mention the parenthetical nature of the reporting clause.

Similarly, direct speech in the conception by Huddleston and Pullum is also either embedded or non-embedded. Embedded constructions, such as *She replied, “I live alone.”*, are syntactically a complex sentence with one main and one dependent clause. However, should the reporting clause be postponed (such as “I live alone,” she said), it will again be

classified as a parenthesis, while the reported clause is to be considered a non-dependent clause (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1026).

Quirk et al. also suggest two possible classifications of direct speech – either as a complex sentence with a reporting clause as the main clause, or a simple sentence with the reporting clause in form of an adverbial. These two conceptions depend also on the positioning of the reporting clause in the sentence; nevertheless, these conceptions are seen as a gradual scale rather than a binary option. They also list a number of solid reasons and transformation tests for both ways in which this particular case may be understood. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1023)

Daneš et al. (1987, p. 503) reject the view that direct speech is syntactically a form of a complex sentence with one or more content clauses. Although structurally similar to this particular form of a complex sentence (*souvěťí obsahové*), direct speech contains two utterances belonging to two different planes of utterances and these two clauses do not form a unit from the syntactic point of view.

An older Czech grammar handbook by Trávníček (*Mluvnice spisovné češtiny. Část II – Skladba*, 1951, p. 747) claims that, “The reporting clause alone or the clause where the reporting word or expression is present forms with the reported clause a compound sentence, while the nature of the reported clause is that of a content clause or content complex sentence.” (Translation MS)⁶ Trávníček thus sees reported and reporting clauses in coordination rather than subordination (as opposed to indirect speech, which is – in his view – always subordinated).

Trying to find a common ground for different grammatical traditions which would allow a comparison of the material in the two languages, this thesis relies on classifications by Quirk et al., for the sole reason that although probably right in their claim, Daneš et al. reject the syntactic unity of direct speech while failing to present a better tool for understanding their relationship. However, it is not the aim to ascertain the syntactic relationship between the reported and reporting clauses, this thesis agrees with Pípalová (2012, p. 78), who claims, “The syntactic status of the reporting clause is rather indeterminate, indistinct or vague.”

As this thesis, for the sake of simplicity, works on the assumption that a reporting clause might be understood as a main clause, while a reported clause is a dependent clause, it remains to ascertain which kind of dependent clause it might be.

⁶ Uvozovací věta sama nebo ta věta, ve které je uvozovací slovo nebo výraz, tvoří s řečí souřadné souvěťí, ve kterém je řeč větou nebo souvěťím povahy obsahové. (Trávníček, 1951, p. 747).

These types are listed in Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1022). Most often, the reported clause is the direct object to the main clause (*John said, "I like it."*). It can also be subject complement (*What John said was, "I like it."*) or apposition (*John used exactly these words: "I like it."*). In the analysis conducted in this thesis, a fourth option presented itself in one of the analysed texts, with the reported clause being the subject of the reporting clause. (*"More practice," is all he could say.* (Johnson, p. 37))

Although the traditional terms of reporting and reported clause are used in this thesis, they are to be understood in substantially broader sense than it is typically the case in syntax. A reporting clause can thus consist of several syntactic clauses in subordination to the main clause. A reporting clause may be simply an expression lacking a finite verb. Similarly, a reported clause can consist of several clauses or even sentences.

2.3 Reporting clause

The reporting clause is the focus of this study, so accordingly it should be examined in detail. As noted above, it can be understood as a main clause or a parenthetical comment clause. It may be placed initially, medially or finally, and the position of the reporting clause tends to indicate its syntactic function. It may enter into coordination: in this case – in agreement with Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1022) and unlike Šoltys (1983, p. 65) – only one conjoin of the compound clause is considered to be a reporting clause, not the whole compound.

The reporting clause is not an obligatory element as it is possible to omit it under certain conditions. These conditions are pragmatical or stylistical rather than syntactical: to put it very simply, it must be clear who is speaking (as also stated by Dočekalová, 2009, p. 157).

Reporting clauses are often very short (in this feature they are similar to comment clauses) and contain two vital elements: identification of the speaker and a verb of speaking, though exceptions to this description are common, especially in the Czech material. The definition of what constitutes a verb of speaking (in Czech *verbum dicendi* or *sloveso pravení*) is given by Šoltys (1983, p. 26) and it seems valid for both Czech and English. "In defining verbs of speaking, no distinct syntactic feature can be relied upon, except that the verb of speaking introduces direct speech."⁷ (Translation MS) This criterion was, however, tested and found wanting, and a subsequent semantic criterion needed to be added. "These [*verbs of speaking*] are action verbs, the agentive participant of which, i.e. the participant which would

⁷ "Při definici slovesa pravení se nemůžeme opřít o žádný výrazný syntaktický rys, vyjma toho, že verbum dicendi uvádí přímou řeč." (Šoltys, 1983, p. 26)

stand in S_{nom} (subject) position in a sentence with an active finite verb, performs the activity involving the use of language (speech activity).”⁸ (Šoltys, 1983, p. 26; translation MS)

Šoltys (1983, pp. 31-53) and Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1027) present the reader with a list of verbs that constitute verbs of speaking; however, these lists cannot be in principle considered exhaustive, as the authors acknowledge. Nor is it the truth that every reporting clause contains a verb of speaking, quite the contrary.

A feature of English reporting clause is that it tolerates inversion under specific circumstances. Inversion takes place mostly with the verb *say*, with a subject other than a personal pronoun, and with the reporting speech in medial position; then it is considered neutral (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1027; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1022), while according to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1022) it is unusual and archaic if the subject of an inverted reporting clause is a personal pronoun. The inversion is not possible if the verb has an object (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1027).

2.3.1 Diachronic perspective

An interesting insight into the diachronic perspective regarding the verbs of speaking is presented in Peprník’s study (1969) on the development of verbs of speaking (*verba dicendi*) in English prose from 18th century up to mid 20th century. Peprník showed that a great change occurred in English fiction – a shift which may not yet be complete. Based upon a vast material from various authors, Peprník claims that 18th-century prose avoided the verb “*say*” in favour of a variety of verbs, some of which are no longer in use (such as *hold forth*). 19th-century prose could be characterized as often employing verbs “*ask*” and “*answer*” and a number of their near-synonyms such as “*address, announce, ejaculate, enounce, inquire, interpose, inquire, observe, plead, pursue, remark, resume, retort, return, subjoin*“, etc. (ibid., p. 147). In the 20th century, these verbs were mostly replaced by “*say*” as a universal verb for any function of reported speech. Other verbs are employed either no longer or very marginally, becoming a stylistically marked element with distinct functions.

A similar study of the function and form of Czech reporting clauses was conducted by Kučerová (1975). In her master’s thesis, Kučerová examines the development of Czech fiction in terms of reporting clauses from the beginning of the 19th century until the 1960s. She identified 6 periods representing 6 generations of writers and came to following conclusion:

⁸ “Jsou to [slovesa pravení] akční slova, jejichž agentní participant, tj. ten, který ve větě s aktivním verbem finitem bude v pozici S_{nom} , tedy podmětem, je vykonavatelem činnosti, která záleží v užívání jazyka (neboli v činnosti řečové).” (ibid.)

First, the earliest fiction (about 1820-1850) omitted reporting clauses only very scarcely (in about 3% of all instances), whereas the post-war Czech fiction omitted them in about 43% of all instances (ibid., p. 15). The analysis conducted in this thesis came to a lower number of omissions for the 2010-2015 period (about 36%, see Table 1).

She also established that the verbal diversity fluctuates greatly in individual periods (with the peak in the interwar period and declining slowly in the 1960s).

The most frequent verb of speaking was in the early 19th century the verb “říci”, but by the turn of the century it gave way to the archaic verb “pravit”. In the interwar period, the verb “říci” claimed back its primacy (ibid., p. 35).

One of Kučerová’s conclusions is that while 19th century fiction showed greater coherence in terms of what may be called the style of a generation, modern fiction is by far more diverse, and therefore more difficult to generalize about, yet common features might still be detected.

It is relevant to emphasise here that it is conceivable that the Czech fiction style might be undergoing transition due to the influx of original or translated English literature into the Czech culture.

2.3.2 Criteria for a reporting clause

Traditionally, the criteria for defining reporting clauses are mostly formal; the formal approach is preferred by both Quirk et al. and Huddleston and Pullum. The reporting clause is always a part of direct speech in which it is placed within the sentential frame signalled by a capital letter at the beginning and a full stop at the end. As this thesis needs to reconcile differences between two languages in order to make an analysis feasible, an approach different from those presented in both English and Czech grammars needs to be adopted. This approach should rely more on the function of reporting clauses rather than on the form. Quirk et al. say the function of the reporting clause is to refer “to the speaker and the act of communication in speech or writing (*Caroline said; Caroline wrote*), and perhaps also to the person or persons spoken to (*Caroline told us*), to the manner of speaking (*Caroline told us hesitantly*), or to the circumstances of the speech act (*Caroline replied; Caroline explained; Caroline said while washing her hair*)” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1020).

What is the function of the reporting clause – as this thesis understands it – may be easily deduced when compared to a theatre play. Below, there is a short passage from Jane Austen’s *Pride and Prejudice* and its modern dramatization adapted by Rebecca Gellot.

“My dear Mr. Bennet,” said his lady to him one day, “have you heard that Netherfield Park is let at last?”

Mr. Bennet replied that he had not.

“But it is,” returned she; “for Mrs. Long has just been here, and she told me all about it.”

Mr. Bennet made no answer.

“Do not you want to know who has taken it?” cried his wife impatiently.

“*You* want to tell me, and I have no objection to hearing it.” (Austen, 1994, p. 5)

MRS. BENNET: (ENTERS LEFT and rushes to MR. BENNET.) My dear Mr. Bennet! Have you heard the news? Netherfield Park is let at last!

LYDIA: (Looks expectantly at MRS. BENNET) Netherfield, Mamma?!

KITTY: (Coughs.) The large estate so close to Meryton?

MRS. BENNET: The very same. Well? Don’t you want to know who has taken it?

BENNET: You want to tell me, and I have no objection to hearing it. (Gellot, 2015, p. 1)

The most obvious purpose of the reporting clause is to identify the speaker. In a theatre play script, every speaker’s turn is marked using a new line starting with the character’s name in capital letters. In prose, the conventions are less strict – not every turn needs to be signalled with a reporting speech. Also unlike a theatre play script, a prosaic text may indicate the speaker by a reporting clause placed medially or finally.

Another function is to convey – in Šoltys’s terminology – the metalinguistic function (see the comment to Lydia’s line in Gellot’s adaptation). Šoltys asks when the metalinguistic function (a better term for this conception might perhaps be metacommunicative function) is employed in everyday situations, i.e., when one perceives the need to use communication to refer about communication. The answer he gives is as follows: “If one is forced to focus one’s attention on language in a certain manner and under certain circumstances. We all know from experience that we do not focus our attention on tools which function safely, smoothly, automatically, we might say “unmarkedly”, but rather on tools which satisfy our needs to work with them partially insufficiently or, conversely, very well. These latter tools are in a “marked” position.”⁹ (Šoltys, 1983, p. 23. Translation MS.) In fiction, one of such

⁹ “Jestliže je [člověk] nějakým způsobem, nějakými okolnostmi nucen zaměřit (to focus) na jazyk svou pozornost. Všichni víme ze zkušenosti, že pozornost nezaměřujeme na nástroje, které fungují bezpečně,

insufficiencies as described by Šoltys is the information loss due to the channel of communication. The speaking events reproduced in fiction are typically face-to-face conversation¹⁰: from an observer's point of view (i.e., the reader: it is assumed that the reader is to be given the impression that he or she is an observer of a lifelike conversation) the speakers exhibit distinct phonetic features, facial expression, gestures, etc. None of that can be conveyed in a verbatim record of a conversation; therefore, the writer is forced to compensate for such inadequacy. It should be also noted that non-verbal communication often describes emotions of the characters. Emotions and the way of interacting are relevant for how the reported clause will be understood – they contain the necessary hints to spot irony, shifts in meaning, etc.

The reporting clause also conveys the circumstances of speaking in the broadest sense which might not be directly related to the metalinguistic function, but may imply a feature which could be classified as an expression of the metalinguistic function. In Gellot's adaptation of Austen's novel, this would be the case of "*coughs*" in Kitty's line.

Another example may be taken from Pípalová (2012, p. 83), „*Prosím vás!*“ *mávla rukou*. – “*What do you think!*” *She waved a contemptuous hand*. Here the reporting clause (formally indicating a gesture, a nonverbal communication accompanying speech) specifies the meaning of the reported clause to the extent that if left out or modified, the meaning of the reported clause would be vastly different.¹¹ Therefore, these circumstances form an inseparable part of the communication and a written text needs to compensate for their absence in the reproduction of the communicative situation.

bezproblémově, automaticky, řekli bychom bezpříznakově, nýbrž na nástroje, které nějakým způsobem nedostatečně, nebo naopak velmi dobře uspokojují naši potřebu pracovat s nimi, tedy na nástroje, které jsou v příznakovém postavení.” (Šoltys, p. 23)

¹⁰ In this thesis, the term “dialogue” and “conversation” are used in the sense of Bečka's distinction. Bečka (1992) distinguishes dialogue (as a stylized, primarily written text recording a conversation between characters) and conversation (as a spontaneous form of communication, which is primarily spoken, in Czech: *rozhovor*). Dialogue, then, is supposed to imitate conversation to sound natural. The purpose of the dialogue in fiction is that it “allows, as a convenient means of stylization and composition, capturing certain components of human behaviour and conduct in a fuller, more natural and efficient manner than other techniques would [umožňuje jako výhodný stylizační a kompoziční prostředek vystihnout některé složky chování i jednání lidí plněji, přirozeněji a účinněji než postupy jiné – translation MS]” (p. 269). Dialogues are further divided into three groups according to their polarity: a) dialogues with stronger polarity (where difference in opinions is present), b) dialogues with limited polarity (no differences of opinions, a participant passively accepts the information passed on by another participant, its goal is to communicate a piece of information) and c) dialogues with formal and implied polarity (where the dialogue serves only a secondary purpose – such as to characterise a participant).

¹¹ A modification of reporting clauses can have such an impact on the respective reported clause that it would result in a very different translation. Cf. „*Prosím vás!*“ *řekla úpěnlivě*. – “*I beg you,*” *she said imploringly*. or „*Prosím vás!*“ *podivila se*. – „*Oh really!*“ *she said astonished*.

A typical means of compensation is employing a verb of speaking, either modified or not modified. This verb and/or its modification(s) carry a semantic element which gives the reader a hint as to the emotions, state, articulation or attitudes of the speaker. In Austen's novel adapted into a theatre play, the adverbial *expectantly* in Lydia's line is a nice example of such a modification. It reproduces the attitude of the speaker toward the listener, and the reader of the script may also complement this attitude with external expressions that in his or her experience often accompany similar attitudes: tone of voice, posture, emotions as shown in the character's face, etc. Šoltys notes (1983, p. 67) that Czech prose employs both adverbials and semantically strong verbs, and the purpose of both the means seems very similar in the functional point of view.¹²

To conclude, the criteria to determine what constitutes a reporting clause and what does not, are set as follows for the purposes of this thesis:

- The reporting clause identifies the speaker in a general sense (i.e. also pragmatically);
- The reporting clause either contains a verb of speaking (thinking/writing, etc.), or relates to the circumstances of the communication, or both.

However, some borderline cases appeared during the investigation of the language material. As stated above, the thesis considers direct speech to be a complex sentence with the reporting clause as the main clause, i.e. the reporting clause and reported clause forming a unit. In some examples, however, a clause fulfilling the above criteria was separated from the reported clause by a full stop, yet remained within the same paragraph. Traditionally, these cases are not considered reporting clauses, yet the author of this thesis believes that there is a close relationship between them and reporting clauses with no verb of speaking. These phenomena are examined further in Chapter 4.

¹² Šoltys also classifies these verbs (in Czech: verba dicendi) (1983, pp. 58-75). First, he excludes verbs that are mostly neutral (unmarked, *nepříznaková*), such as “říci, mluvit, psát”, as their meaning is very general and vague and carries little or no metalinguistic function. Second, he analyses verb in relation to the addressee. Third, he excludes verbs that do not convey an element of speaking, although admittedly some of the decisions are rather dubious – among the excluded verbs are: *dopálit se, durdit se, myslit si, nechápat, obrátit se*, etc. These verbs refer – in Šoltys's view – to circumstances happening simultaneously with the act of speaking. Finally, the remaining verbs occurring in direct speech in Czech prose are divided based on semantic criteria – they either relate to a gesture (such as *ušklebovat se, pitvořit se, kývnout*), a situation (including aspect of time, of place, of the way of speaking, and of speaker's emotions and states), or an attitude (including attitudes toward the addressee, the situation, the speaker himself or herself).

2.4 Writer's manuals and prescriptive tradition

Writer's manuals do not, naturally, constitute a part of scientific exploration of the reported clause and it is often the case that the information these manuals contain is presented in a prescriptive, authoritative manner, yet it is predominantly based on experience of the manual writer and his or her personal taste for one or another variety of language. In this thesis, however, these manuals are considered important as they might have a rather significant influence on their users, i.e., the potential fiction writers, and might explain some patterns observed in the language material.

The recommendations on how to conceive reporting clauses in English are given in a number of writer's manuals, a genre which is – judging by the sheer number of titles – increasingly popular in the USA. Of all this rich literature, one example should be adduced here.¹³ Stephen King in his half memoir, half guide to writing (King, 2000) protests strongly against the use of adverbs in reporting clauses (also called “dialogue attributions”¹⁴). Using adverbs modifying a verb of speaking in a reporting clause is considered ludicrous, cliché and lacking clarity and strength as opposed to verbs with no modifications (ibid., p. 126). Similarly, strong verbs betraying emotional attitude, such as *gasp*, *jerk out*, *grate*, are better avoided. King gives an example of Larry McMurtry, a contemporary American novelist, who strictly adhered to the usage of “(s)he said” even in highly emotionally charged scenes, and he encourages aspiring writers to do likewise. When discussing why other verbs of speaking are employed, King suggests that authors are afraid that their readers will not understand their intents unless a particular and specific interpretation key is provided (in form of an adverb or semantically strong verb of speaking) (ibid., p. 126).

To make stronger impression on his readers, King refers to a practice used by a 20th-century novelist Victor Appleton who became famous for his characteristic way of handling reporting clauses, which included frequent modification by adverbs, sometimes even producing an unintended comical effect. Victor Appleton's works, especially Tom Swift, an adventure novel series, achieved great popularity and based on it, a new sort of joke / party game emerged, an example of which is provided by King:

¹³ One example only is adduced, however, similar pieces of advice are presented in a number of works, such as: Lisle, H. (2000) *Mugging the Muse. Writing Fiction for Love and Money*. New York: Forward Motion, p. 83. The choice of King (2000) is motivated mostly by his commercial success: this thesis surmises that commercial success of his novels would motivate a larger proportion of potential writers to read his manual, thus his manual becomes more influential than texts produced by other, less successful authors.

¹⁴ The mere choice of words here shows King's attitude toward reporting clauses, emphasising their tag-like nature.

“I’m the plumber,” he said, with a flush.

This sort of joke is also referred to as “Tom Swifties” and this particular field of study has been scrutinized in great detail by Litovkina, who defines them as “*a wellerism conventionally based on the punning relationship between the way an adverb describes a speaker while simultaneously referring to the meaning of the speaker’s statement*” (Litovkina, 2014, p. 1). It is important to note that some authors tend to mix an intentional pun, such as those produced in “Tom Swifties”, and the regular use of adverbs modifying verbs of speaking in reporting clauses or even some other forms of reporting clauses, and call all the aforementioned phenomena a “Tom Swifty”.

Unlike the situation in the USA, where writer’s manuals are abundant, the Czech market is rather limited as far as the offer of style guides to writing fiction is concerned. A number of publications are translated, including the aforementioned King’s manual, and the advice given there is translated with no alteration implying – presumably falsely – that a piece of advice applying to English literary style applies to the Czech style in equal measure.

Some of the Czech writer’s manuals were written by Dočekalová, a well-known teacher of creative writing and an author of several books on the same topic in Czech. She also touched on the issue of reporting speech in Czech, presenting several observations from the point of view of a professional writer. Dočekalová (2014, s. 81), in response to a reader who claimed that varying verbs in reported clauses is boring, acknowledges the complexity of the issue and suggests either to employ a new verb in every clause or stick to “*řekl*” [*he said*] as it is taught in creative writing classes all over the world because the reader rarely notices the verb in a reporting clause at all, and therefore no excessive creativity is necessary. However, she further comments on the frequent use of “*řekl(a)*” [*(s)he said*] in the reporting speech: “Personally, I must admit that I find it disconcerting both as an author (I do not like it) and as a reader (I feel disturbed by the constant use of the verb “*řekl*” in reporting clauses and it spoils my joy of reading). Therefore, I advise to choose the compromise and consider it carefully. Sometimes use “*řekl*”, sometimes other verbs, sometimes you can avoid the reporting clause entirely, etc.”¹⁵ (Dočekalová, 2014, p. 81, translation MS). She notes that the current trend in fiction is to write dialogue so that no reporting clause is necessary. (Dočekalová, 2009, p. 157.) This option is further examined in Chapters 5 and 7 of this thesis.

¹⁵ “Osobně se musím přiznat, že s tím mám problém nejen jako autor (nelíbí se mi to), ale i jako čtenář (neustálé používání slovesa *řekl* v uvozovacích větách mne ruší a kazí mi požitek z četby). Radím tedy volit kompromis a hodně u toho přemýšlet. Někdy použijte *řekl*, někdy ostatní slovesa, jindy se obejdete bez uvozovací věty apod.” (Dočekalová, 2014, p.81)

Nevertheless, she acknowledges the possibility to employ the verb “říci” in all relevant instances.

2.5 English-Czech contrastive studies of reporting clauses

There are many English-Czech contrastive studies concerning the topic of reporting clauses. Unlike this thesis, however, the core subject of their interest is the lexical diversity of reporting verbs. Furthermore, these studies are based on comparing translation with its original – this approach is obviously motivated by the fact that it is in the translation process where this field of study finds its practical application. Understanding differences – a process presumably based on intuition – is a crucial work a translator must undertake prior to actual translation of a piece of fiction and verified scholarly knowledge the translator can draw on would make his or her work easier.

A thorough comparative research was conducted by Pípalová (2012). Her objective was to describe reporting clauses (and their equivalents) in Czech and English. Pípalová achieves this by way of comparing original and translated texts while running the risk that the results will be distorted by interference; this thesis attempts to reach the same goal using original texts only while running the risk that the results will not be comparable due to differences of many kinds in the examined material.

Pípalová seems to concentrate more on a rather special type of direct speech, which is called direct speech with a true reporting clause in this thesis, while other types are mentioned and treated only marginally.

As for the material, Pípalová chose 3 titles of original fiction in both languages (6 total) and their translation, having 150 selected samples in Czech original fiction, 150 samples in English original fiction, and 300 samples of their respective counterparts. This thesis is also based on 6 titles (3 English and 3 Czech ones), with a total number of 506 examined samples (235 for English, 271 for Czech). Of these, only about 75% would qualify as direct speech with a true reporting clause (which would correspond to Pípalová’s corpus; to be precise: it is 164 samples of true reporting clauses for English and 177 samples of true reporting clauses for Czech).

As far as the method is concerned, Pípalová seems to have treated her samples as decontextualized units, while this thesis is based on the assumption that position and interaction with the text, including semantics and our knowledge about the world, can assist the researcher in explaining certain significant deviations found in the texts (such as Svěrák’s rather excessive use of vocatives in Chapter 6).

As to the semantics of the employed verbs, Pípalová classifies them into three groups: verbs of speaking/verbs of thinking, verbs of nonverbal action and verbs indicating an aspect of nonverbal communication¹⁶. In her English corpus, verbs of nonverbal action were only sparsely represented (3 instances), whereas in Czech 20 instances were found. English translators either added a verb of speaking into the reporting clause, or transformed the reporting clause into narrative, or chose another, marginal solution (such as omission).

Pípalová also examines the variety of verbs used in the original texts. She also notes that unlike in Czech, English verbs in reporting clauses tend to be vague and semantically empty. It is therefore natural that the translators into Czech tend to disrupt the monotony of English reporting clauses, while translators into English do the opposite process. Pípalová summarizes, “*Thus it seems that whereas the Czech text welcomed verbs other than dicendi and cogitandi as sources of liveliness and vividity, the English texts tried to keep their number to the minimum.*” P. 88).¹⁷ It is the objective of Chapter 5 to verify or disprove this claim.

Pípalová (2015) also conducted a research devoted to the use of reporting clauses in academic writing. In her study, she analysed various parameters and their influence on the form of reported speech – these parameters are: nativeness/non-nativeness, level of experience in writing academic prose, field (linguistics or literary science), year of publishing, and gender. For this thesis, it was influential to learn that the register has indeed a vast impact on the character of reported speech. In academic writing – Pípalová found out – indirect speech (61.8%) dominates over direct speech (a striking difference when compared to the fiction reader’s experience). Also the verb tense in reporting clause is predominantly present simple (75.7%) as opposed to past simple which could be expected to prevail in fiction.

Stix in his diploma thesis (2010) scrutinizes direct speech in Agatha Christie’s novels in comparison with their Czech translations. He notes that while the unity of style in English original texts is guaranteed by the author herself, the unity of style of translated texts, being translated by a number of translators, is only guaranteed by the conventions applicable in the target language and by the professional aptitude of the translator(s) in question. In the corpus of Christie’s novels, the verb “say” was employed in 71% cases, followed by “ask” (8%), “nod” (6.9%) and other verbs employed occasionally with a frequency below 5%. In Czech

¹⁶ This thesis subsumes the verbs of nonverbal action and the verbs indicating an aspect of nonverbal communication into one subgroup called non-genuine reporting verbs, see Section 5.2.4.

¹⁷ The question arises whether this feature of the English texts is inherent to the typology of the language (as Pípalová seems to imply) or whether it is a stylistic choice favoured by today’s aesthetics. Given that King (2000, p. 126) often warns novice fiction writers to mercilessly delete any “steroid verbs”, or the mere fact that this issue is discussed in a style guide, seems to indicate that the latter is more likely the truth.

translations the corresponding verb “řici” [say]¹⁸ accounted for 53.5%, “zeptat se” [ask] for 12.1%, “odpovědět” [answer] 8.7%, “pokračovat” [continue] 7.5%, “prohlásit” [announce] 5.5%. The problem of Slavic aspect is not treated explicitly – the reader may implicitly assume that under the token “řici” [say] both “řici” [say – perfective aspect] and “říkat” [say – imperfective aspect] are included. Similarly, the question whether the proportion of reporting verbs (or rather “introductory verbs” – which is the term Stix uses as a synonym), as employed in the translations, is comparable to the situation found in original (i.e., not translated) Czech fiction of the same genre is left unanswered. Only a very general remark is made (probably an indirect quotation of Jiří Levý’s *Umění překladu*) that Czech prose uses “the introductory verb “řici” far less often than the English equivalent “say” appears in English prose” (ibid., p. 17), and obviously the interference makes its mark on the resulting translation.

Another study of reporting verbs in translation was presented by Patrick Corness (2010) who based his study on the parallel corpus Intercorp. His interest was focused on how the verb “say” in English reporting clauses is translated into Czech, reaching the conclusion that in 33.3%, the verb in the Czech translated text is “neutral” (a group consisting of the verbs *hovořit, ozvat se, pravit, povídat, mluvit, promluvit, povědět, říci, říkat, říkávat* – Corness, 2010, p. 163), in 10.1% of instances the reporting clauses are omitted and 56.6% of all the instances of the verb “say” in English reporting clauses were translated with other verbs.

It is of greater importance for the purposes of this thesis that Corness also researched the occurrence of the word token “said” in original English fiction. He pointed out that there is a great variance between the individual texts examined, in a Harry Potter novel, the verb “say” is used in 98.2% of all the instances, whereas in Douglas Adams’s text *The Hitchhiker’s Guide to the Galaxy* it is only 1.4%.¹⁹ Importantly, the results established in Corness’s article highlight the fact that stylistic features in fiction, such as reporting verbs, are rarely monolithic, and there is a great variance between individual authors.

As shown in this section, contrastive Czech-English studies of reported clause focus mostly on translation. This approach has a significant weakness – which is the assumption that the result of a translator’s work is comparable without reservations with authentic (original) Czech fiction. It cannot be assumed that a translator has a better theoretical

¹⁸ Translation in square brackets, here and elsewhere throughout the thesis, is done by the present writer.

¹⁹ The extremely low frequency of “said” in Douglas Adams’s novel is in fact a matter deserving a closer examination beyond the scope of this thesis. Such a low frequency, if it truly was the case (which the present writer doubts based on a brief examination of the novel in question), would probably be due to systematic and intentional avoidance of the reporting verb “say” by the author.

background than is available in the state-of-the-art linguistics; his or her approach is led by intuition based on reading experience. This intuition is highly individual and might differ from the norm. However, it is obvious that a good translator might come imperceptibly close to imitating the style of present day fiction in the target language. And yet even a congenial translator might be influenced by the source text, with interference being inevitable; or he or she might be forced to sacrifice conventions (such as verbs in reporting clauses) to reproduce the authorial intent; the translator's choices are rarely easy.

Therefore, it may be deemed useful to follow a different approach to verify the results obtained so far. This thesis aspires to examine two comparable sets of original texts in a way similar to Pípalová's approach, yet without resorting to translations to guarantee comparability.

3 Material and Method

3.1 Parameters

The aim of this thesis is to describe differences between Czech and English pertaining to the reporting clause or its absence. As the thesis is based on a limited number of excepted instances of direct speech, it is crucial to select the material carefully. Should the examined material be imbalanced, the results may be distorted as well. Also, the English and the Czech set of texts should be mutually comparable. However, in practice it is very hard if not impossible to obtain material which is fully comparable. Therefore, much attention is paid to parameters examined in literature and their influence on the form of reporting clauses.

Pípalová's study on direct speech in academic writing (Pípalová, 2015) was the most helpful in this respect. She notes several stylistic and sociolinguistic parameters and provides information about their effects on the reported speech in academic writing. The first parameter, although it is not stated so explicitly in her study, is the register: Pípalová's results concerning the frequency of direct and indirect speech as well as the verb tense seem to confirm the starting position of the thesis: there is a vast difference between reporting clauses in fiction and in academic writing. Another parameter which Pípalová examined is the level of experience, or whether the author is a novice or a professional in academic writing. In this respect, she noted a difference by 30% or more, so it may be seen as a justified and valid parameter influencing direct speech. In our material, the level of professionalism is guaranteed by selecting a winner in any category of a prestigious literary competition – Magnesia Litera Book Award or Pulitzer Prize²⁰. She was further interested in the origin of the speaker (also their "nativeness"), which presumably does not apply here. This thesis mirrored this effort in selecting exclusively Czech and American writers. The gender of the authors was another parameter Pípalová was explicitly interested in. Indeed, certain differences between the male and female style of writing direct speech were found in both her and Stix's (Stix, 2010) texts. They both noticed that Czech male translators use fewer verbs in reporting clauses than female translators. Other differences either do not relate to fiction or are rather insignificant and can be better explained by the interplay of other parameters. After long deliberation and considering other aspects, such as the variability of the available texts,

²⁰ It needs to be admitted that the present writer sees the two literary awards as somewhat different in terms of the awarded texts. While Magnesia Litera Book Award often nominates such works for the most prestigious categories which could be described as progressive, loved by literary critics, but not so commercially successful, Pulitzer Prize tries to strike the balance between commercial success and artistic character of the awarded texts. To accommodate this difference, the Czech texts selected for this analysis are partly winners of the popular vote category (Magnesia Litera Reader Prize).

the present writer decided not to include gender as a parameter, but rather subsume it under the general personal preferences which are unavoidable in comparison of any two fiction writers.

Pepřík's study (1969) and Kučerová's thesis (1975) show convincingly that the time a piece of fiction is written is crucial for the form of direct speech. Therefore, all the texts selected are very recent and were published in the same 5 year period (2010-2015).

Also, there were no convincing data pertaining to a different character of direct speech in closely related but different literary genres, in this case a novel and a short story. For the purposes of this thesis, both of these genres are treated as one with no difference distinguishing special features in one or the other. This was done in order to gain more leeway in terms of selecting the material to be examined while not compromising other parameters that are considered important.

3.2 Material

The leading criterion for selecting the texts is that they should all be comparable in the following respects: register (all should belong to fiction in a very broad sense as stated in Section 2.2.1, and be either a novel or a short story), level of professionalism (all should be winners of a prestigious literary competition), publishing year (all should be published within a short time period of 5 years), a traditional way of narration (all should be, to a greater or lesser extent, considered traditional narration and should – at least in their form – constitute the mainstream on the given market; this criterion is admittedly rather subjective). After careful consideration these texts were selected:

- Tartt, D. (2012) *The Goldfinch*. New York: Little, Brown and Company, pp. 7-20.

Donna Tartt won the Pulitzer Prize for Fiction with this novel in 2014.

- Johnson, A. (2012) *Orphan Master's Son*. New York: Random House, pp. 19-37.

Adam Johnson won the Pulitzer Prize for Fiction with this novel in 2013.

- Egan, J. (2010) *A Visit from the Goon Squad*. New York: Knopf, pp. 3-21.

Jennifer Egan won the Pulitzer Prize for Fiction with this novel in 2011.

- Svěrák, Z. (2011) *Nové povídky*. Praha: Fragment, pp. 68-78.

Zdeněk Svěrák won the Magnesia Litera Reader Prize with this short story collection in 2012.

- Šindelka, M. (2011) *Zůstaňte s námi*. Praha: Odeon, pp. 13-22, 47-51

Marek Šindelka won the Magnesia Litera Prize with this short story collection in 2012.

- Tučková, K. (2013) *Žitkovské bohyně*. Brno: Host, pp. 7-29, 51-68.

Kateřina Tučková won the Magnesia Litera Reader Prize with this novel in 2010.

Obviously, three of the texts are in English, three of them are in Czech. The length of the Czech samples was adjusted in order to roughly match the number of instances of direct speech in the English texts. More detailed information on the composition of the texts is provided in Table 1.

3.3 Method

The method used in this thesis was driven by the examined material. The analysis is based on the first chapter of the novels or a random short story in case of the short story collections. Features were identified, indexed and later systematically classified, and similar features were looked for in further analysis of the material. To count the particular features, a spreadsheet was used; no other computerised mode of analysis was employed. To ensure correct indexation, a manual scanning was performed and in some instances where it was feasible, quality checks were made as well by means of simple verifying mathematical calculations.

All percentage data provided in tables are calculated as arithmetic average and rounded to two decimal places.

3.4 Unit of the analysis

The basic unit which is subject to the analysis is an instance of direct speech. Direct speech, as stated in Section 2.2.3, often consists of two elements, a reporting clause (which can be also omitted) and a reported clause framed by a conventional means (such as quotation marks).

The delimitation of units (instances of direct speech) may be problematic. To decide what forms a unit, three crucial criteria were used.

First of them is the paragraph boundary. For the sake of simplicity, no instance of direct speech could stretch over more than one paragraph. The only exception is the specific Czech

instance of direct speech with a true reporting clause in the initial position; here, the reporting clause is conventionally placed in the preceding paragraph, whereas in English, it is in the same paragraph. This exception is necessary to make the comparison feasible.

The second criterion is that every unit of the analysis has only one speaker. It applies in cases where a paragraph contains more than one unit.

It remains to decide how to treat instances of direct speech in a single paragraph with one speaker where there are two (or more) coordinated (true) reporting clauses containing a reporting verb each and forming one coordinated sentence. These cases were treated as two (or more) separate units, with respect to the fact that it would be unusual to have more than one (true) reporting clause in direct speech, as established by Kučerová (1975, p. 13) for modern pieces of fiction.

4 Analysis

The contrastive Czech-English studies on the reporting clauses (see Section 2.5) are mainly concerned with the nature of the reporting verb. However, as it is shown in this chapter, the differences between the two languages are more fundamental than that. They concern the very basic decision whether to use the reporting clause or not, and if so, what form of a reporting clause is likely to be used.

In this section, some general aspects pertaining to reporting clauses are examined and the instances of direct speech are further categorized according to the presence or absence of a reporting clause.

4.1 Reporting clause

What is a reporting clause? As noted in Section 2.2.2, a reporting clause is an utterance which belongs to the narrator's speech rather than to that of a character. Functionally, it identifies the speaker and gives additional comment on the channel of communication, circumstances accompanying it or paralinguistic or other linguistic features related to it.

In the approach taken in this thesis, the decision whether a reporting clause is used or not is a matter of stylistic choice rather than of syntactic or semantic choice. It is necessary to bear in mind that most stylistic features are – to a various degree – influenced by personal preferences; nevertheless, Pípalová's (2015) and Peprník's (1969) observations give certain hope that these personal preferences are of lesser importance when compared to the impact of the register and the style of a given time period, and that it is feasible to conduct a successful comparison concerning reporting clauses in Czech and English, irrespective of personal preferences and choices.

4.2 The presence or absence of a reporting clause

A reporting clause (also "RC") is a non-obligatory element. Therefore, some examples of direct speech (also "DS") might contain it while others might not. In Table 1, the following distribution of reporting clauses in the examined material was ascertained:

| Sample / Language | Direct speech, total | Reporting clause, total | Reporting clause present (%) | Reporting clause absent (%) |
|----------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Egan | 83 | 55 | 66.27% | 33.73% |
| Johnson | 93 | 73 | 78.49% | 21.51% |
| Tartt | 59 | 36 | 61.02% | 38.98% |
| English | 235 | 164 | 68.59% | 31.41% |

| Sample / Language | Direct speech, total | Reporting clause, total | Reporting clause present (%) | Reporting clause absent (%) |
|----------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Svěrák | 115 | 85 | 73.91% | 26.09% |
| Šindelka | 72 | 38 | 52.78% | 47.22% |
| Tučková | 83 | 54 | 65.06% | 34.94% |
| Czech | 270 | 177 | 63.92% | 36.08% |

Table 1: Presence or absence of a (true) reporting clause in the examined material

As shown in Table 1, (true) reporting clauses are omitted in about one third of instances in both languages; however, omission varies significantly in different texts, in particular Tartt and Šindelka (the more experimental of the selected texts) omit (true) reporting clauses rather more frequently. A reporting clause was most often employed by Johnson and Svěrák – two texts closest to pure storytelling with little experimentation with the narrative. English seems to prefer omission slightly less; however, this conclusion requires further examination of the factors governing the omission of reporting clauses.

It has been noted that the omission of a reporting clause takes place in situations where it is allowed pragmatically. In other words, it must be clear who the speaker is. In theory, context should differentiate any instance of direct speech, attributing it correctly to the appropriate speaker. Context is, however, generally rather vague and omitting all reporting clauses would turn most pieces of fiction into an undecipherable puzzle which is difficult if not impossible for the reader to enjoy. It seems therefore, that although not obligatory, reporting clauses are vital for fiction. They are, however, also stereotypical and repetitious. Fiction writers therefore seek new means serving the functions of traditional reporting clauses.

Three situations as far as reporting clauses are concerned appeared in the material. Consider the following three types:

(Type A – a true reporting clause): *Officer So said, “I haven’t kidnapped anyone in years.” (Johnson, p. 24)*

(Type B – no reporting clause): *“Where will you look?” (Egan, p. 5)*

(Type C – a false reporting clause): *He smiled. “You can see my options.” (Egan, p. 5)*

The difference between type A and type B is that there is a reporting clause in type A which is missing in type B.²¹

The difference between type B and type C is that in type B, there is no sentence belonging to the narrator's voice in the respective paragraph.²²

The difference between type A and type C is primarily based on punctuation:

- (a) In type A, the reporting clause and the reported clause are separated by means of a secondary boundary mark (such as a comma), whereas in type C, the separator is a primary terminal (such as a full stop).²³
- (b) In some instances, however, the criterion based on punctuation is not sufficient. This is not the case of initially placed reporting clauses, which are ended with either a full stop (primary terminal – type C) or a colon/comma (secondary boundary mark – type A); it is the case of the reporting clauses in non-initial positions. In cases where the reported clause is ended with a question mark or an exclamation mark (followed by a reporting clause), it is not clear whether these instances of punctuation should be treated as primary terminals or secondary boundary marks. The upper/lower case of the first letter in the reporting clause is relevant then. If it is lower, the reporting clause is to be treated as a true reporting clause, if it is upper, it should be a false reporting clause.
- (c) Unfortunately, even such a definition is not sufficient to decide the nature of all reporting clauses in our sample. The problem arises, when a non-initially placed reporting clause starts with a word usually written with the first letter in upper case (such as the name of a character) and simultaneously the reported clause is ended with a question mark or an exclamation mark. Surprisingly, this combination did not

²¹ An interesting theoretical issue arises whether to consider type A the default scenario of direct speech as it is numerically the most frequent type in the examined samples (see Table 2), or whether type B should be the default scenario considering the fact that the reporting clause is, indeed, a non-mandatory element and that any reporting clause may be basically omitted and replaced by signals given by the context which allows for the speaker's identification. In this thesis, the present writer prefers the first option due to the frequency of occurrence.

²² In this thesis, paragraphs are considered functionally relevant units and the structuring of sentences into paragraphs is governed by rules and is not a matter of writer's arbitrary choices. There are, however, also different opinions on the nature of paragraphs. Hrbáček (1993, p. 80), for instance, states that a paragraph is a unit based on form purely, belonging to *parole*, rather than *langue*. In this thesis, however, deeper links between text structuring and paragraphs are observed. Paragraphs seem to be structured according to an implicit set of rules (such as one paragraph = an utterance by one character), which do not seem to be broken anywhere in the examined material. Moreover, should this rule be broken, the text would be highly confusing for readers. However, it cannot be excluded that some writers use the structuring into paragraphs to fit their own needs. Such texts would be rather more innovative than those chosen for this thesis.

²³ This terminology is used by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1731). Basically, a primary terminal is a type of punctuation which marks the boundary between sentences, whereas a secondary boundary mark does not.

occur in the Czech samples, as there is a very strong tendency to put the verb in non-initial reporting clauses at the first place of the reporting clause (see Section 5.6.2). However, certain instances did occur in the English samples. In that case, those reporting clauses were considered true which contained a verb of speaking. As examined in Section 5.2.2, English true reporting clauses in the examined samples contain exclusively verbs of speaking.

The criteria for defining types A and C are thus primarily formal (punctuation), but they are not arbitrary. In fact, the form reflects other, deeper differences, such as one syntactic unit (one sentence) in the case of the simplest possible manifestation of type A as opposed to two syntactic units (two sentences) in the case of the simplest possible manifestation of type C. There are also other differences which are examined in greater detail in the respective Chapters 5 and 7.

Chapter 5 deals with type A, which is called **direct speech with a true reporting clause** (“DS with TRC”) in this thesis. A true reporting clause is not limited to initial position as in the example above, but occurs also in medial and final positions (see Section 5.6).

Chapter 6 examines type B, or **direct speech with no reporting clause** (“DS with no RC”). A reporting clause is absent and the reported clause occupies the whole paragraph. It may contain an indicator of who the speaker is (such as vocatives or a specific feature identifying the speaker among a restricted set of characters), but this identification takes place solely within the reported clause delimited by the quotation marks.

Chapter 7 is concerned with type C, which seems to be a mix of the two types above. In this thesis, it is called **direct speech with a false reporting clause** (also “DS with FRC”). The speaker is identified, but neither within the reported clause delimited by quotation marks nor in a (true) reporting clause, i.e. structure embedded in the direct speech. The identification is done by means of an independent sentence which – typically of English – includes a verb of a non-verbal action (*to smile*) rather than a verb of speaking. A similar situation also occurs in one of the Czech texts (see Example 1):

(1): *Jana se uchechtne. [Jana is smiling mockingly.]. „Ty ses asi zbláznil. Takže s tím klukem, to si taky jenom něco potřeboval vyzkoušet.“ (Šindelka, p. 15)*

When compared to a similar sentence in Example 2 (which is called true reporting clause with non-genuine reporting verb, see Section 5.2.4), the blurred boundaries between the types A and C become obvious.

(2): *„Jo! Ten je vtipnej. Hele...“ ukazuje Andrea [Andrea is pointing]. (Šindelka, p. 49)*

The only difference between Šindelka's examples of direct speech (Examples 1 and 2) – apart from the position of the reporting clause, which is irrelevant at this point – seems to be the punctuation and the capital letter separating the independent sentence in the first example from the true reporting clause in the second example. From the functional point of view, they are similar or identical. They both identify the speaker and they include a verb other than a verb of speaking, i.e. the verb of non-verbal communication. In the examined material, the seemingly “narrative” sentences (similar to Example 1) and the direct speech in quotation marks are surprisingly (and systematically) placed within the same paragraph. As was the case with the true reporting clause, a false reporting clause can also appear in an initial, medial or final position.

In light of the facts established in this chapter, Table 1 requires a revision presented in Table 2.

| Sample / Language | Direct speech – all types | | Type A: DS with TRC | | Type B: DS with no RC | | Type C: DS with FRC | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|---------|---------------------|--------|--------------------------|--------|------------------------|--------|
| | total | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 83 | 100.00% | 55 | 66.27% | 18 | 21.69% | 10 | 12.05% |
| Johnson | 93 | 100.00% | 73 | 78.49% | 9 | 9.68% | 11 | 11.83% |
| Tartt | 59 | 100.00% | 36 | 61.02% | 13 | 22.03% | 10 | 16.95% |
| English | 235 | 100.00% | 164 | 68.59% | 40 | 17.80% | 31 | 13.61% |
| Svěrák | 115 | 100.00% | 85 | 73.91% | 30 | 26.09% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Šindelka | 72 | 100.00% | 38 | 52.78% | 29 | 40.28% | 5 | 6.94% |
| Tučková | 83 | 100.00% | 54 | 65.06% | 29 | 34.94% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Czech | 270 | 100.00% | 177 | 63.92% | 88 | 33.77% | 5 | 2.31% |

Table 2: True reporting clause, false reporting clause and no reporting clause – overview

4.2.1 Multiple reported/reporting clauses

In the ideal case examined above, both the reporting clause and the reported clause are truly a single clause. It is, however, very common that a reported clause consists of more than one clauses, in fact, of several sentences. Therefore, the reported clause is not to be understood in a strictly syntactic sense, but rather as a larger unit encompassing all the sentences uttered by one character and contained within one paragraph. A good example of multiple sentences within one reported clause is Example 1 above. As far as syntax is concerned, this thesis advocates the opinion that both sentences within the quotation marks in Example 1 depend equally on the reporting clause (serving as a main clause for all the sentences within the reported clause).

A similar case is then Example 3 below. In this thesis, instances similar to Example 3 are considered to be true reporting clauses in medial-final position (see Section 5.6.2). However, from a different perspective, they can be seen as an instance of postponing a part of the reported clause after the reporting clause.

(3): *“Enough,” Officer So said. “It’s time to get that language school a new Japanese teacher.” (Johnson, p. 29)*

As with the multiple reported clauses, there should also be multiple reporting clauses. As far as true reporting clauses are concerned, there is, however, no evidence of any such duplicity in the presented material. However, Kučerová (1975, p. 13) noted that the situation in older Czech fiction used to be different and multiple true reporting clauses were at least possible if not common. It is, however, common that a reporting clause is a conjoin of a compound sentence, see Example 4.

(4): *“Fair enough,” Officer So said and tossed him a sack. (Johnson, p. 22)*

Example 4 is similar in nature to Example 5. Here, yet another interaction can be seen between the reporting clause and other pieces of narrative. Note that the initially placed sentence in Example 5 is not considered a false reporting clause in this thesis as there already is a true reporting clause, which is considered to be the main means of identifying the speaker, the manner of speaking, the addressee, etc. However, the initially placed sentence can often introduce the speaker, which allows the presence of merely a pronominal subject in a finally placed reporting clause. The pronominal subject is a useful means of the overall tendency to keep the reporting clause short and inconspicuous (as advocated by King (2000), see Section 2.4).

(5): *She dug her hands in her coat pockets. “Up here, it’s more stable,” she said. (Tartt, pp. 18-19)*

A more complex situation is to be found in false reporting clauses. Multiple false reporting clauses are quite common. They can appear in initial, medial or final positions or in combination of any of the two positions and may consist of any number of sentences. This issue is further discussed in Section 7.1.

5 True reporting clause

This chapter is dedicated to the most frequent scenario – direct speech in this case contains both a reported clause representing the speech of a character, and a reporting clause. In the simplest case, the reporting and the reported clause form a single sentence, the punctuation separating the two parts is most often a comma and never a full stop. In this chapter, several selected²⁴ phenomena are examined, namely the syntactic complexity of true reporting clauses, lexical diversity in reporting verbs and the subject, manner adjunct, object expressing the addressee, the vocative, and position.

Direct speech with a true reporting clause is the most common case of direct speech. A reporting clause is not necessary as such and it can be left unexpressed, with the speaker being determined by the context. However, more often than not (in about two thirds of all instances of direct speech in the examined texts), the authors of the examined samples chose to employ it nonetheless. This can be demonstrated for both the English and the Czech sample texts, with English employing a true reporting clause slightly more often (68.59%) than Czech (63.92%). See Table 1 above.

It has been noted by Levý that “in English, the stereotypical repetition of the verb “said” in reporting clauses is due to the fact that English literature simply has a different convention in this respect”²⁵ (Levý, 1983, pp. 143-144; Translation: MS). The experience suggests that Czech reporting clauses are more varied, diverse, in other words conspicuous, whereas English reporting clauses are rather monotonous and repetitious, or inconspicuous. It is the goal of this chapter to examine whether the different conventions are limited to monotonous verb repetitions or whether other differences might be observed as well, and to verify or disprove the claim concerning conspicuousness/inconspicuousness.

5.1 Syntactic complexity

The starting point for comparing reporting clauses in Czech and English is the complexity of their syntactic structure. It may be hypothesised that it is common for English to use simpler syntactic structures in reporting clauses than it would be the case in Czech

²⁴ Other phenomena were disregarded simply because there are too many facets to examine and this thesis is limited in length. The selected phenomena should, in the present writer’s opinion, reflect the language style rather than choices premeditated by the novelists and having a calculated effect on the reader (such as the choice of the historical present). It is, however, dubious, whether any such distinction could be made – in a sense, all choices can be premeditated. The selection of the examined phenomena should be then taken as a subjective choice based on the present writer’s reading experience.

²⁵ “V angličtině je stereotypní opakování slovesa „said“ v uvozovacích větách dáno tím, že anglická literatura tu prostě má jinou konvenci.” Levý. (1983, pp. 143-144).

reporting clauses. This presupposition is based on the remark made by Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1023) claiming that “[...] *we can view the reporting clause as subordinate, functioning as an adverbial. Thus, like most adverbials it can be positioned variously and can – at least sometimes – be omitted. Both syntactically and semantically, it resembles the most important type of comment clause [...]*” This most important type of comment clause, as referred to in Quirk et al., is exemplified by *I believe, I guess, I think, I expect, I feel, I hear I presume, I assume, I understand*, etc. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1114). Although counter-examples are also given, it can be expected that most comment clauses of this first and *most important type* would consist of merely a predicate and a subject. Thus, if the Quirk et al.’s claim regarding reporting clauses being similar to comment clauses both syntactically and semantically is to be taken consistently, it may be expected that many of the reporting clauses in the examined sample would show similar internal syntactic simplicity as the comment clauses do.

In Czech, no such theory has been suggested about the similarity between comment clauses (*vsuvky*) and reporting clauses. In fact, even the comparison between the Czech *vsuvky* and the English comment clauses is problematic. Admittedly, Czech comment clauses similar to *I believe, I think, I presume*, etc. are not as numerous as their English counterparts and are often limited to a higher register. The present writer would assume that the Czech reporting clauses are not expected to be syntactically as simple as the English comment clauses.

To verify this assumption, the material was examined in order to identify clauses showing the simplest possible structure (subject and predicate, including unexpressed subject (*podmět nevyjádřený*) for Czech) without any coordinated or subordinated clauses. This number was then divided by the total number of true reporting clauses to establish the relative percentage of the relative clauses similar to comment clauses. The detailed results are shown in Table 3.

| Sample / Language | True reporting clauses | | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|---------|--------------------|--------|
| | All | | Simplest structure | |
| | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 55 | 100.00% | 34 | 61.82% |
| Johnson | 73 | 100.00% | 58 | 79.45% |
| Tartt | 36 | 100.00% | 8 | 22.22% |
| English | 164 | 100.00% | 100 | 60.98% |
| Svěrák | 85 | 100.00% | 16 | 18.82% |
| Šindelka | 38 | 100.00% | 11 | 28.95% |

| Sample / Language | True reporting clauses | | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|---------|--------------------|--------|
| | All | | Simplest structure | |
| | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Tučková | 54 | 100.00% | 5 | 9.26% |
| Czech | 177 | 100.00% | 32 | 18.08% |

Table 3: Percentage of the reporting clauses with the simplest possible structure in the examined texts

Table 3 shows that the English material examined in this thesis generally tends to employ the simplest possible structure of the reporting clauses significantly more often than the Czech material does. Tarrt seems to be an exception – this may be caused by the nature of her prose, which is narrated by a personal narrator (first-person narrative). On the other hand, Johnson uses the simplest structure in about 80% of all true reporting clauses. This device can be exploited to increase the pace of the narrative; however, even Egan’s novel, which relies on suspense much less than Johnson’s story, shows a high percentage of the simplest possible reporting clauses. In the Czech samples, the highest score has been – expectedly – achieved by Šindelka, who is closest to the Anglo-American tradition of reporting clauses in other respects as well.

5.2 Lexical diversity in reporting verbs

Lexical diversity in reporting verbs is the most extensively studied area of reporting clauses in the Czech-English comparative context. It is the main focus of interest for Pípalová (2012, 2015), Stix (2009), and Corness (2010). It has also been studied from the diachronic point of view, e.g. Peprník (1969) and Kučerová (1975), and synchronic, non-comparative viewpoint: Šoltys (1983). Several manuals for writers also give prescriptive advice on what a reporting clause should look like in the relevant language/culture: King (2000) and Dočekalová (2014).

Both the literature and practical experience suggest that the differences between the two languages regarding verb diversity are the most palpable and the most obvious. This is of particular interest to translators, who often need to accommodate the conventions pertaining to the reporting clause in the source language to that of the target language.

Before the analysis commences, however, several marginal instances which were classified as containing a true reporting clause need to be put aside, so that the analysis is feasible.

5.2.1 Excluded examples

In order to perform the analysis of verb diversity, several marginal instances of two types needed to be excluded; those examples originate in both the Czech and English texts.

- Semantic implication
- Attributive use

Semantic implication covers those instances of direct speech in the sample texts which seem to lack any overt verb, yet do not lack a part of a reporting clause²⁶. These can thus be seen as a transient element between direct speech with no reporting clause and direct speech with a true reporting clause, see Example 6.

(6): *There was a rap on the door, a man's voice: "Any luck?" (Egan, p. 13)*

According to the classification provided by Quirk et al. (1985, p. 883ff), such instances cannot be considered as an ellipsis as they do not meet both of the two requirements for ellipsis, i.e. verbatim recoverability and a defective structure requirement, but rather one of them only (defective structure). Thus these instances may be called semantic implication in the terminology used by Quirk et al.

There are, in total, nine instances of this kind in the texts, four of them in the English samples, five in the Czech samples.

Attributive use of the reporting clause is also excluded. In this case, the reporting clause is complete, yet an analytical problem arises as the reported clause could be seen as depending on a (deverbal) noun rather than complementing a verb. See Example 7.

(7): *Dora na to přistoupila bez dalších otázek, stejně jako na Surmenin příkaz: — Jen o tom nesmíš s nikým mluvit. Nikdy nesmíš říct nikomu jinému než mně, co ti ti lidé po cestě říkají a že s tebou vůbec mluví. To je tajemství, které musí zůstat jen mezi námi, rozumíš? (Tučková, p. 21)*

It is more appropriate to relate the reported clause to the deverbal noun *příkaz* [order] than to the verb *přistoupit* [accept]. Similar cases cannot be reflected in the analysis of verb diversity in the sample texts.

The attributive use is marginal. There are only four instances in all the texts, all of them in the Czech samples. However, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1023) indicate that such a strategy is just as viable in English as in Czech.

²⁶ Admittedly, Example 6 can be also seen as a manifestation of a minor clause pattern lacking a finite verb. The distinction of the two types is, however, seen as immaterial for the purposes of this thesis.

5.2.2 Say, ask, and “other”

In this thesis, the diversity of verbs is simplified to three options: *say*, *ask*, and the use of other verbs.

The two verbs *say* and *ask* were chosen for their frequent use and because they represent genuine reporting verbs per se (see Section 5.2.4). Even such instances were encompassed under the verb *say* where *say* is not a finite verb, as in Example 8.

(8): “No,” *she managed to say*. (*Egan*, p. 11)

The Czech counterparts of the verb *say* (for the purposes of this thesis) are: *řici* or *říkat*, as Czech obligatorily expresses aspect, often according to the tense of narration²⁷. The Czech counterparts of the verb *ask* are: *ptát se* or *zeptat se*. Any other verb with very similar meaning which is a stylistic variety of the verbs adduced above (such as: *pravit*, *tázat se*, etc.), should be included among the “other” verbs.

Table 4 presents the frequency of the verbs within the examined samples.

| Sample / Language | Say – řici, říkat | | Ask – ptát se, zeptat se | | Other | | All | |
|-------------------|-------------------|--------|--------------------------|--------|-------|--------|-------|---------|
| | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | total | % |
| Egan | 39 | 73.58% | 9 | 16.98% | 5 | 9.43% | 53 | 100.00% |
| Johnson | 48 | 65.75% | 18 | 24.66% | 7 | 9.59% | 73 | 100.00% |
| Tartt | 28 | 82.35% | 2 | 5.88% | 4 | 11.76% | 34 | 100.00% |
| English | 115 | 71.88% | 29 | 18.13% | 16 | 10.00% | 160 | 100.00% |
| Svěrák | 22 | 25.88% | 10 | 11.76% | 53 | 62.35% | 85 | 100.00% |
| Šindelka | 11 | 34.38% | 3 | 9.38% | 18 | 56.25% | 32 | 100.00% |
| Tučková | 8 | 15.69% | 8 | 15.69% | 35 | 68.63% | 51 | 100.00% |
| Czech | 41 | 24.40% | 21 | 12.50% | 106 | 63.10% | 168 | 100.00% |

Table 4: Distribution of the reporting verbs in the analysed sample

For the convenience of the reader, the data from Table 4 above are displayed in Figures 1 and 2 below. Figure 1 shows the proportion of various reporting verbs in English, whereas Figure 2 does the same for the Czech part of the material.

²⁷ Kučerová (1975, p. 15) identified a strong tendency in present-day Czech fiction to use perfective aspect (vid dokonavý) when the narration is set in the past tense, while imperfective aspect (vid nedokonavý) is often used when the narration is presented in the present tense.

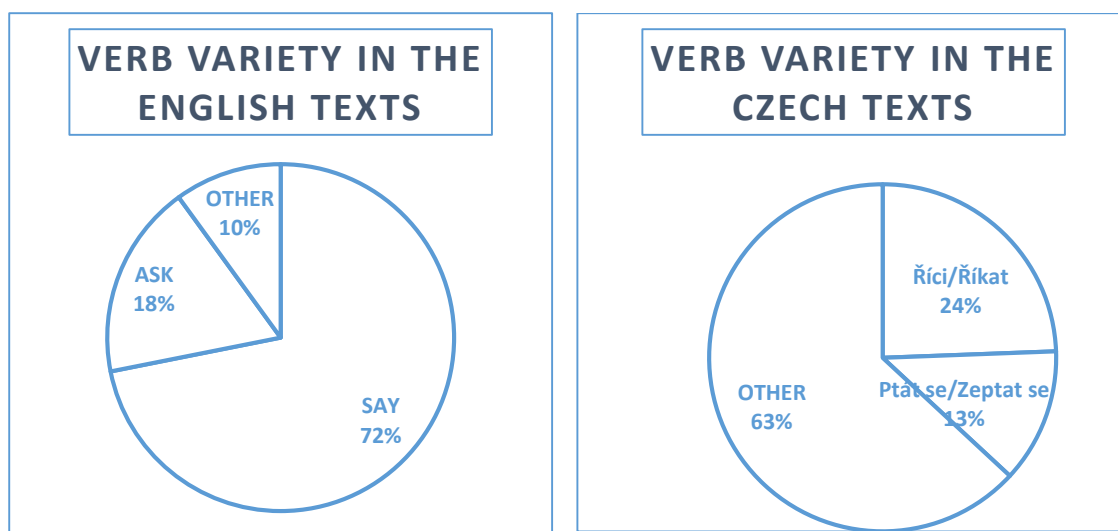


Figure 1: Verb variety in the English texts

Figure 2: Verb variety in the Czech texts

Figures 1 and 2 show quite convincingly what has long been held true: whereas English prefers a rather monotonous repetition of a single verb *say* in nearly three quarters of all true reporting clauses, Czech prefers diversity in the verbs employed in the reporting clause and the verb *říci/říkat* is used in about one quarter of all the examined instances only.

5.2.3 Ask and its competitors

As can be inferred from Figures 1 and 2 and Table 4 above, *ask* (*ptát se, zeptat se*) is the second most frequent verb used in reporting clauses.

From its semantic content, it is clear that its use is limited to specific occasions, i.e. asking a question. In this section, the thesis attempts to clarify whether there is a competition between verbs in reporting clauses which take form of questions.

Such instances in the analysed material were examined where the reported clause is ended with a question mark. The only problematic point was the rather specific case of medially placed reporting clause ended with a full stop, followed by the continuation of the reported clause (medial-final position, see Section 5.6). In such cases, only the first part of the reporting clause was examined, whether it contained a question mark or not, while the final part of the reported clause was disregarded. In case of multiple reported clauses, only those were taken into consideration which stood closest to the reporting clause.

The analysis shows that all the 50 instances of *ask* (*ptát se, zeptat se*) in the reporting clauses pair with a question in the reported clause. However, not every question is introduced with the reporting verb *ask* (*ptát se, zeptat se*). The exact distribution in the analysed material is given in Table 5.

| Sample / Language | Questions | | Ask – ptát se, zeptat se | | Say – říkat, říci | | Other | |
|----------------------|-----------|---------|-----------------------------|--------|-------------------|--------|-------|--------|
| | Total | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 13 | 100.00% | 9 | 69.23% | 3 | 23.08% | 1 | 7.69% |
| Johnson | 21 | 100.00% | 18 | 85.71% | 2 | 9.52% | 1 | 4.76% |
| Tartt | 8 | 100.00% | 2 | 25.00% | 6 | 75.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| English | 42 | 100.00% | 29 | 69.05% | 11 | 26.19% | 2 | 4.76% |
| Svěrák | 16 | 100.00% | 10 | 62.50% | 0 | 0.00% | 6 | 37.50% |
| Šindelka | 8 | 100.00% | 3 | 37.50% | 0 | 0.00% | 5 | 62.50% |
| Tučková | 22 | 100.00% | 8 | 36.36% | 0 | 0.00% | 14 | 63.64% |
| Czech | 46 | 100.00% | 21 | 45.65% | 0 | 0.00% | 25 | 54.35% |

Table 5: Distribution of reporting verbs in respect to the questions in reported clause

Table 5 shows that *ask* (or *ptát se*, *zeptat se*) is the basic verb for introducing a question in both languages, in English more so than in Czech due to the tendency of English for monotonous reporting verbs as reflected in literature and also demonstrated in Table 4 and Figures 1 and 2. The frequency of use regarding the Czech verbs *ptát se*, *zeptat se* [*ask*] while introducing questions is substantially higher (46%) than that of the verbs *říci*, *říkat* [*say*] introducing any Czech reported clause in general (24%). The reason for these findings might be the positioning of questions in the narrative – a question is likely to be followed by an answer, in which case a different reporting verb is opted for. Thus the verbs *zeptat se*, *ptát se* [*ask*] might be distributed more evenly in the narrative, where there is no need to replace it for the sake of diversity as would be the case with the verbs *říci*, *říkat* [*say*].

Table 5 also shows a difference between the Czech and the English samples in terms of which verbs compete with *ask* (*ptát se*, *zeptat se*) when introducing questions in the reporting clause. The competing verbs in Czech are from the “other” verb category, whereas the verb *say* is again the greatest competitor of *ask* in English. Using *říci/říkat* to introduce a question in Czech appears marginal²⁸; no such instance was recorded in the analysed Czech texts.

What led the English authors to choose *ask* or *say* in this particular instance is unclear. Questions introduced with *say* do not differ in any obvious manner from those introduced with *ask*. The choice seems to be based on individual preferences, with some authors being more likely to opt for the verb *say* (such as Tartt) than others.

It is striking that the English verb *say* serves as a hyperonym for any other reporting verb and can more or less freely replace any other verb in most if not all instances. In Czech,

²⁸ The use of *říci*, *říkat* in reporting clauses introducing questions might indicate that the question is not, in fact, a question, that is serves a different function. Whether a similar distinction is possible in English is disputable.

the use of říci, říkat [say] is much more restricted, not only in terms of frequencies of occurrence, but also functionally.

Favouring a verb other than *ask* (*ptát se*, *zeptat se*) or *say* (*říci*, *říkat*) in introducing questions is intrinsically connected with the general use of “other” verbs in the given language (see Section 5.2.4). Three groups of “other” verbs used to introduce questions have been found in the examined material:

- a stylistic variant of the basic verb *ask* – *ptát se*, *zeptat se* (partial synonyms of the verb *ask*): (2 instances) *vyzvídat* [inquire], *chtít vědět* [want to know]
- a verb indicating a way of speaking, which becomes more prominent than the actual fact that what is introduced is a question: (11 instances) *zasyčet* [hiss], *rozkřiknout se/rozkřičet se* [start to shout], *rezonovat* [resonate], *opakovat* [repeat], *naléhat* [insist], *mručet* [grumble], *zavolat* [call], *call*, *demand*; *opakovat* is used twice in this function in all the Czech texts, whereas the other verbs were used only once
- a verb indicating a parallel activity, commenting on the action, describing a nonverbal communication, etc. (14 instances) – here the list of verbs would be misleading, the whole reporting clause is required to ascertain the meaning, therefore an example (Example 9) is adduced:

(9): „Takže vy to všechno vidíte jako pomstu osudu za tenhle dětskej hřích?“ *podíval se docent Blesk na hodinky, protože mu tento pacient zabíral víc času, než očekával.* (Svěrák, p. 76)

5.2.4 “Other” verbs

The category of “other” verbs, i.e. verbs other than *say* (*říci/říkat*) and *ask* (*ptát se/zeptat se*) in the reporting clauses, is the broadest and the most difficult one to describe. It is rather insignificant for the English samples (about 10%); while at the same time it is the largest group in the Czech samples (about 60%). The verbs in the Czech samples vary significantly more than those in the English samples. However, it can be held typical of both languages that the individual “other” verbs display relatively low frequencies: often, they only have one occurrence within the analysed texts.

To adduce all the verbs and their frequencies would be tedious and rather confusing for the reader as in most cases the verb would mean little if taken out of context. Therefore, only those verbs are presented below which occur at least twice in all the same-language samples (twice in the respective language):

Czech: *usmát se* [smile] (5 instances), *podívat se* [look] (4 instances), *opakovat* [repeat] (3 instances), *zašeptat/šeptat/šeptnout* [whisper] (3 instances), *rozkřiknout se/rozkřičet se/vykřiknout* [shout] (3 instances), *zavolat* [call] (2 instances), *odpovědět* [answer] (2 instances), *naléhat* [insist] (2 instances), *ukazovat* [point] (2 instances), *spustit* [start] (2 instances), *dodat* [add] (2 instances), *přikývnout* [nod] (2 instances)

English: *call* (4 instances), *tell* (4 instances), *repeat* (3 instances)

66.97% (71 of 106) “other” reporting verbs in Czech are used only once in the three Czech texts, whereas in English, these unique reporting verbs amount to only 31.25% (5 of 16). The higher frequency of unique verbs in Czech as opposed to English confirms the tendency of Czech toward diversity.

Let us proceed to the analysis of the semantic content of the “other” reporting verbs. A theoretical digression may be necessary at this point.

Citing Šmilauer’s *Novočeská skladba*, Kučerová (1975) distinguishes two subtypes of verbs within this category for Czech. She calls one of the subtypes *pravá slovesa uvozovací* (genuine reporting verbs), while the other is referred to as *nepravá slovesa uvozovací* (non-genuine reporting verbs). The distinctive feature between the two categories is “whether or not a component of speech is present”²⁹ (Kučerová, 1975, p. 9; translation MS). It remains uncertain what verb should be considered as conveying “a component of speech”. Kučerová herself remains rather vague as far as this issue is concerned. She only mentions that verbs of nonverbal communication are a contentious area, and in her work, these verbs belong among genuine reporting verbs.

Kučerová, however, also mentions another important factor that can serve as a criterion: i.e., that some of the reporting clauses in Czech are independent with no clear syntactic relationship between the reporting clause and the reported clause (ibid.); unfortunately, she does not (at least not explicitly) elaborate this very keen observation in her thesis.

Šoltys (1983, p.26) in his definition of “verbum dicendi” states that not every reporting verb, i.e., a verb in the reporting clause, is a verb of speaking and excludes the former from his analysis. He also counts the verbs of nonverbal communication among genuine reporting verbs, as Kučerová did, thus confusing the terms “speech” and “communication”. In Šoltys’s work, the most relevant criterion for distinguishing whether a verb in the reporting clause is also a verb of speaking is its semantics. This, however, presents a not insignificant obstacle, as admitted by Šoltys: he claims that in contentious cases the native speaker’s language

²⁹ “... zda je či není zastoupena řečová složka.” (Kučerová, 1975, p. 9)

experience and the authoritative dictionary of the Czech language should guarantee that criteria are applied consistently with his theory. (Šoltys, 1983, pp. 27-28)

This thesis aims to describe any reporting clauses that can be demonstrated in the material, thus it examines both the genuine and the non-genuine reporting verbs. To this end, the classification presented by Šoltys and Kučerová would need to be made more precise and an idea of a continuum between a prototypical genuine and non-genuine reporting verb would need to be considered to accommodate all the doubts as to the exactness of the classification as voiced by Kučerová and Šoltys in their theoretical introduction.

Let us consider the three examples below:

(10): *Zatímco pacient namítal, že nemá pyžamo, hlásil do telefonu [(he) announced to the phone]: „Alenko, připravte pro pana Plíška lůžko.“* (Svěrák, p. 78)

(11): *Když zavěsil, povzbudivě se usmál [(he) smiled encouragingly]: „Všechno dostanete. Pyžamo, večeri, čaj, dobrý prášky vám dám, žádný úzkosti nebudou, budete spát jako dudek.“* (Svěrák, p. 78)

(12): *„Jsem jedno ucho,“ zapsal si docent do bloku hůlkově PLÍŠEK [the associate professor wrote the name PLÍŠEK in his notebook].* (Svěrák, p. 69)

Considering the semantic criterion as specified by Kučerová and Šoltys, reporting verbs in Examples 10 and 11 would be considered genuine reporting verbs, whereas Example 12 would be excluded from their analyses as a non-genuine reporting verb, even though the “element of speech” is of a rather dubious nature in Example 11 (and in verbs indicating nonverbal communication in general). When considering other feature suggested by Kučerová, i.e. the relative independence of the reported clause on the reporting clause, we can see that Examples 11 and 12 have a lot in common – namely that the reporting clauses can both stand separately (after a word order adjustment in Example 12) and represent full, complete sentences, which is not the case with Example 10.

Thus it can be deduced that Example 10 represents a prototypical genuine reporting verb, as it does include an “element of speech” in its semantics and at the same time the reporting clause cannot be conceived as complete, for the objectival complement is missing. On the other hand, Example 12 represents a prototypical non-genuine reporting verb. It can become a full, independent sentence (a minor word order alteration notwithstanding) and its semantics does not include an element of speech.

Thus defined, a number of examples in the sample material would fall in between the two prototypical categories, meeting one of the criteria only or meeting the criteria partially. There is a cline in terms of “genuineness” of reporting verbs, with Examples 10 and 12 illustrating the poles of this cline. Example 11 is than to be found somewhere in between. In this thesis (and unlike in Kučerová’s and Šoltys’s conceptions), the verbs similar to Example

11 are considered non-genuine reporting verbs, which seems a more convenient solution for a Czech-English contrastive study.

Interestingly, all the 16 instances of “other” verbs recorded in the English texts would fit into the category of genuine reporting verbs (100%); while in the Czech texts, this is the case in only 38 of 106 “other” verbs (35.38%).

The “other” verbs in the Czech texts which would not fit into the genuine reporting verb category could be classified as follows (a non-exhaustive list):

- verbs of nonverbal communication, see Example 11;
- verbs indicating an activity happening simultaneously with the speech, see Example 12;
- phasal verbs used independently, i.e. without any other verb, see Example 13;

(13): *Když se napili, pacient nahlédl do papírku a pokračoval [(he) continued]*³⁰: „Ale k nejhorší tragédii...“ (Svěrák, p. 70)

- verbs commenting on or explaining the reported clause, see Example 14;

(14): „Tak jdem,“ přeseke to Petr [Petr cuts it off]. (Šindelka, p. 16)

- verbs indicating reception rather than production of speech, see Example 15;

(15): *A když ji ukládá do dek a vydělaných ovčích kůží za pecí, do tepla, které se rozlévá všude kolem ní a po spařeném máku i v útrokách jejího žaludku, stačí Dora ještě zaslechnout [Dora is still able to hear]: — Nic se neboj, však my to spolu zvládneme. Budeš mi dělat andzjela. A budeš se mít dobře. Uvidíš.* (Tučková, p. 10)

- verbs indicating directionality from the speaker to the addressee, see Example 16.

(16): — *Ta tvoje Surmena, poslouchej, přitočila se k ní jednou na obědě kolegyně Lenka Pavlíková [a colleague of hers, Lenka Pavlíková, turned to her once at lunch], — dívala ses někdy do seznamů?* (Tučková, p. 25)

It is of particular interest that for some of these verbs, semantically similar counterparts are used in false reporting clauses in English. Compare Examples 16 and 17, Examples 11 and 18, and Examples 12 and 19.

(17): *Alex turned to the woman. “Where did this happen?”* (Egan, p. 11)

(18): *He smiled. “You can see my options.”* (Egan, p. 5)

(19): *“Me too.” He went back to the tub and fiddled with the knobs and shook in some of the salts [...]* (Egan, p. 19)

³⁰ Translations in square brackets here and elsewhere by MS.

Examples 16 and 17 use verbs of almost identical semantics. Examples 11 and 18 both express an act of nonverbal communication. Examples 12 and 19 both describe an action occurring during or shortly after the utterance.

In false reporting clauses in the English texts, there is no correlation for two types of the non-genuine reporting verbs mentioned above. There is no parallel to the verbs indicating a phase of speaking and to the verbs commenting on or explaining the reported clause or identifying the speech act. It might be hypothesised that none of these verbs is actually relevant. As King (2000, p. 128) puts it, these “strong” verbs may produce weaker fiction. This seems not to apply to Czech fiction style, as many good Czech writers, such as Svěrák, use these particular types in abundance. This is probably also implied by Pípalová (2012, p. 100), “[in Czech] the author takes greater control over the recipient’s reception”.

5.2.5 Lexical diversity in reporting verbs – comparison with Pípalová’s findings

Lexical diversity in reporting verbs is also one of the topics of Pípalová’s paper (2012, pp. 88-91). However, unlike this thesis, she focuses on the diversity in translated texts as well. Her analysis does not include non-genuine reporting verbs (with the exception of verbs of nonverbal communication, such as *smile*, *nod*, etc.), see Section 5.2.4.

As far as the lexical range is concerned, there were 17 different English reporting verbs in Pípalová’s larger sample of original (non-translated) texts (for more information about her analysis, see Section 2.5), while this thesis found 16 reporting verbs in the English sample. Both in this thesis and in Pípalová’s paper, the frequencies of most verbs were very low (exact data were not provided in Pípalová’s paper). Pípalová listed 39 different Czech verbs in her samples, while this thesis found 38 different verbs in Czech (after deduction of the non-genuine reporting verbs with the exception of nonverbal communication to allow a comparison).

The frequency of the verb *say* in original English fiction analysed in Pípalová’s sample was 82%, whereas in this thesis, it is about 72%. The frequency of the verb *říci/říkat* [*say*] in her Czech samples was 35.33% as opposed to 24.40% in this thesis. This difference may be explained by Pípalová’s exclusion of non-genuine reporting verbs.

5.3 The subject of a true reporting clause

In this section, the types of subject prevailing in both the Czech and English texts are presented in respect to the examined material. Again, the greatest attention is paid to verifying/disproving the different tendencies of English toward inconspicuousness and of Czech toward diversity. The form of the subject seems relevant because a more complex

subject might lead to a reduction in the “inconspicuousness” or monotony of the reporting clause and vice versa.

In most cases, the semantic role of the speaker and syntactic role of the grammatical subject typically coincide in both of the two languages. Exceptions, apart from those excluded (see Section 5.2.1), are rare. Among them, the most common is the instance when a reported clause is actually the subject of the reporting clause, such as in Example 20 (2 instances).

(20): *“More practice,” is all he could say. (Johnson, p. 37)*

In one instance, the subject is an anaphoric demonstrative pronoun referring to the broader context of the situation or, possibly, to the previous turn of the dialogue.

(21): *To docenta přimělo k dalšímu pokusu [This made the associate professor give it one more try]: „A vy ve svém věku nemáte potíže s prostatou, pane Plíšek?“ (Svěrák, p. 74)*

These two instances are included under the heading “Other” in the summarising Table 6 below.

The remaining instances (328 in total) appear to fall into one of the five subgroups below.

The subject of the true reporting clauses in the examined sample texts is either a noun (noun phrase) or a pronoun or is left unexpressed. Let us proceed with the latter two instances, coming to the former option later.

Using a personal pronoun (about 41% of all instances in the English texts) is the most frequent alternative of using a substantival subject in English, while it has not been used at all in the examined Czech samples. A particularly high usage can be observed in the text by Tartt. The reason for such a high number of pronouns in this particular position seems to stem from the fact that this piece of fiction is a first-person narrative, which means that one of the main characters, the personal narrator, is referred to exclusively as “I”, using the first person singular personal pronoun.

Czech uses an unexpressed subject in instances where English uses a personal pronoun. Czech grammars typically distinguish an unexpressed subject from an ellipsis, whereas grammars of English treat what would be called an unexpressed subject in Czech as a form of ellipsis³¹. The cohesion of the text is guaranteed by the category of person and number (or

³¹ Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 910-911), among others, allow for omitting the subject in special cases, the one relevant to the topic concerning reporting clauses is the case of unexpressed subject in the second coordinated conjunct. Quirk et al. regard such a case as a special type of ellipsis in coordination. The options to apply unexpressed subject in Czech are, however, much broader and not limited to conjoints only.

gender expressed on participles).³² It is possible in Czech to express the subject simultaneously both by means of a personal pronoun and by means of inflected verb endings, it is, however, a special, context-dependent case and no such example was found in the examined texts. Unexpressed subject is to be found in about 23% of all the examined Czech material, while absenting in the English sample.

The comparison of the two functionally similar categories, pronominal subject in English and unexpressed subject in Czech, shows that Czech uses unexpressed subject less frequently than English uses the pronominal subject (see Table 6 below for exact figures). Given that pronominal/unexpressed subject allows for less subject diversity in reporting clauses than a substantival subject (see below), this result might be held as yet another piece of evidence confirming the tendency towards diversity in Czech reporting clauses in comparison with the English ones.

The substantival subject category was further subdivided into three groups: the “base” group, the “base-part” group and the “alter” group.

The group called “base” refers to a substantival expression functioning as the subject of a reporting clause which refers to one speaker (a character of the novel) and is used in this function most frequently. The frequency of occurrence of this noun within the text is the only criterion for inclusion into this subclass. For the purposes of this analysis, one speaker/character can be attributed only one “base” substantival subject. In Svěrák’s text, for example, the two main characters are most often referred to as “docent Blesk” [*Associate Professor Blesk*] and “pan Plíšek” [*Mr. Plíšek*]. See Example 22.

(22): „*To jste mi tedy udělal radost,*“ řekl upřímně **docent Blesk**. (Svěrák, p. 77)

The “base-part” group includes those substantival subjects which are variations on the “base” subject, consisting partly of words identical with those in the “base” group and referring to the same character. To exemplify the typical member of this subgroup in Svěrák’s novel: “docent” [*associate professor*], “pan docent” [*Mr. Associate Professor*], “Heřman Blesk” or simply “Blesk” (in place of the “base” subject, which is “docent Blesk” [*Associate Professor Blesk*]). See Example 23.

³² This position, as paraphrased in the text, is advocated by Daneš et al. (1987, p. 699, Translation MS), “However, we do not consider leaving the subject unexpressed, which is common in Czech, as a proper textual ellipsis. If the subject is not expressed lexically [...], it is the category of person, number, and – if the verb tense includes a participle – also the category of gender which serve the function of textual connector (Karel was coming back. [He] was whistling merrily.)” („V češtině běžné nevyjadřování podmětu přitom ovšem za textovou elipsu ve vlastním slova smyslu nepokládáme. Pokud subjekt není lexikálně vyjádřen [...] plní funkci textového konektoru kategorie osoby, čísla a – pokud slovesný čas obsahuje přičestí – i jmenného rodu (*Karel se vracel. Vesele si pískal.*)“)

(23): „Škoda, že se tomu nevěnoval,“ řekl suše **Blesk**. (Svěrák, p. 74)

The “alter” group consists of such substantival subjects which refer to the speaker/character using words which are not even partially identical with the most frequent substantival subject referring to the same character (“base” group). Thus, “docent Blesk” in Svěrák’s text is also referred to as “doktor” [*doctor*], “psychiatr” [*psychiatrist*], and “lékař” [*medical doctor*], while “pan Plíšek” is also called “venkovan” [*villager*], “starý pán” [*old man*] or “hromádka neštěstí” [*bundle of misery*]. See Example 24.

(24): „Petláhev,“ ukázal **psychiatr** na lednici. „Vrátila se do tvaru.“ (Svěrák, p. 71)

Using contextual synonyms (base-part or alter) as subjects of reporting clauses seems to be driven by the tendency toward diversity and to avoid repetition. The English texts appear to employ this device extremely scarcely. In the Czech texts, contextual synonyms are also rare, with the exception of Svěrák, who employs them rather generously. The general inclination toward greater subject diversity in Svěrák’s text can thus be influenced by the author’s personal preferences rather than the general style of the present-day Czech fiction. Also longer samples would be required to allow for broader generalizations as this tendency toward variability would be best observed in longer texts.

Table 6 gives comprehensive information about the subject types in the examined texts.

| Sample / Language | Substantival subject | | | | | | Unexpressed subject | | Personal pronoun | | Other | | All | |
|----------------------|----------------------|--------|-----------|--------|-------|--------|------------------------|--------|---------------------|--------|-------|-------|-------|---------|
| | Base | | Base-part | | Alter | | | | | | | | | |
| | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | Total | % |
| Egan | 29 | 54.72% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 24 | 45.28% | 0 | 0.00% | 53 | 100.00% |
| Johnson | 55 | 75.34% | 0 | 0.00% | 1 | 1.37% | 0 | 0.00% | 16 | 21.92% | 1 | 1.37% | 73 | 100.00% |
| Tartt | 8 | 23.53% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 26 | 76.47% | 0 | 0.00% | 34 | 100.00% |
| English | 92 | 57.50% | 0 | 0.00% | 1 | 0.63% | 0 | 0.00% | 66 | 41.25% | 1 | 0.63% | 160 | 100.00% |
| Svěrák | 19 | 22.35% | 30 | 35.29% | 17 | 20.00% | 18 | 21.18% | 0 | 0.00% | 1 | 1.18% | 85 | 100.00% |
| Šindelka | 22 | 68.75% | 0 | 0.00% | 4 | 12.50% | 6 | 18.75% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 32 | 100.00% |
| Tučková | 34 | 66.67% | 1 | 1.96% | 0 | 0.00% | 15 | 29.41% | 0 | 0.00% | 1 | 1.96% | 51 | 100.00% |
| Czech | 75 | 44.64% | 31 | 18.45% | 21 | 12.50% | 39 | 23.21% | 0 | 0.00% | 2 | 1.19% | 168 | 100.00% |

Table 6: Subject types in the analysed texts in respect of diversity

The data in Table 6 show that in English the form of the subject denoting the speaker varies in only about 0.63% of instances (columns “base-part” and “alter”), whereas in Czech variation of the subject takes place in 30.95% of instances.

5.3.1 Comparison with Pípalová’s findings

Pípalová’s findings (2012, p. 86) differ significantly from the results presented above. First, pronominal subjects (or unexpressed (also implicit) subjects in the case of Czech) form the majority in her sample, with 55.59% in English (translated texts together with source

texts) and 59.52% in Czech (see above: in this thesis, the average is 41.25% for English and only 23.21% for Czech). Pípalová's findings concerning the "alter" subject confirm what was expected as far as Svěrák's text is concerned – the alternation of contextual synonyms denoting the speaker is rare both in Czech and in English and Svěrák's (and possibly also Šindelka's) text deviates from the norm (3.8% for Czech and 3.59% for English)³³. There might be several reasons to explain this difference. First, the number of characters on the scene plays an important role. Second, the personal preferences are not to be neglected. Third, Pípalová's analysis includes both translated texts and source texts, therefore interference from one language into another could have taken place.

5.4 The manner adjunct

In this section, the focus is put on expressing the manner of speaking in the reporting clause. The analysis is limited to finding and analysing those adjuncts which could fit into the category of manner adjuncts as it is understood by Dušková et al. (1994, pp. 454-460).

A description by Dušková et al. is a particularly convenient basis for comparison of adverbials as it is strictly contrastive, thus bridging the differences in the theoretical approach between Czech and English, which would otherwise be substantial.

Dušková et al. list four subtypes of manner adjuncts:

- příslovečné určení vlastního způsobu (manner adjunct proper) – answering the question *how/jak?*
- adverbialní určení podmětu (subject adjunct) – qualifying not only the action but also the subject
- příslovečné určení nástroje a prostředku (adjunct of means and instrument) – answering the question *with what / s čím?*. No adjunct of means and instrument could be attested in the reporting clauses within the examined material.
- příslovečné určení průvodních okolností (adjunct of accompanying circumstances) – "[...] refers to the accompanying circumstances under which the action takes place [...]"³⁴ (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 459, translation MS).

The manner adjunct analysis is limited to those adjuncts only which are part of a true reporting clause with a genuine reporting verb. Thus it can be ensured that these adjuncts are

³³ Calculated by the present writer based on the data provided in Pípalová's paper (2012, p. 86).

³⁴ "[...] označuje průvodní okolnosti, za nichž děj probíhá [...]" (Dušková et al., 1994, p. 459)

not obligatory sentence elements and their usage depends purely on the authors' stylistic choices.

The function of these adjuncts in this particular context is to describe either the manner of speaking or the emotions of the speakers. From the perspective of the reader, these two objectives come very close to each other and may blend – the manner of speaking implies non-explicit emotions of the speaker, whereas describing explicitly the emotions of the speaker may have implications for reconstructing the manner of speaking in the narrative world.

Similarly, there seems to be a gradual transition between the manner adjunct proper and the subject adjunct even on the syntactic level.³⁵ The problem of transition can also be attested for Czech – Example 25 shows an adjunct which would allow two possible interpretations:

(25): — *Přečti si to, špitla pak **prosebně**.* (Tučková, p. 58)

Prosebně in this example could be interpreted either as a manner adjunct proper – to be paraphrased as *She whispered in an entreating manner* – or as a subject adjunct *She entreated in/through her whisper* (also in Czech, transformation into transgressive is possible: *špitla pak prosíc* – a manner adjunct proper typically does not allow for such a transformation, see Daneš et al. (1987, p. 117)).

Because of the theoretical and practical complexity, the manner adjuncts in the examined material are not classified into the four listed subgroups, but taken as a whole, bearing in mind that in the complex world of narration, modifying action (manner adjunct proper) has cognitive repercussions concerning the emotional state of the speaker.

At this point, it is vital to reiterate that English writers of usage manuals, such as King (2000, p. 128), object strongly to the use of adjuncts in reporting clauses, advocating the merits of a simple, tag-like reporting clause. Dočekalová (2014) gives no restrictions on the number or nature of adjuncts in reporting clauses. This may be an important factor for their presence or absence in the examined texts.

English participial constructions present a problematic point of the analysis. Most of them attested in the examined material would fall under the fourth subclass listed above: adjunct of accompanying circumstances or they might be understood as reduced clauses. However, most of these non-finite construction function in a manner similar to Czech

³⁵ Dušková et al. give several examples on different interpretations of the two subclasses of manner adjuncts, such as: *He shrewdly avoided a direct answer*. This can be interpreted in two ways: either *He was shrewd in that he avoided the answer* or *He avoided the answer in a shrewd manner*. The first interpretation would be then classified as subject adjunct, while the second interpretation would fall under manner adjunct proper (see Dušková et al. (1994, p. 456)).

transgressives and their semantics is quite different from the other two subgroups of adjuncts analysed in this material. Participles describing an action (Example 26) were excluded, unlike those describing a state of the subject (Example 27). Admittedly, the choice was sometimes difficult. The context and semantics of the participial phrases were the criteria for this choice.

(26): “No,” my mother called, *fishing in her bag for her tiny candy-striped collapsible*, “don’t bother, Goldie, I’m all set—” (Tartt, p. 13)

(27): “She wasn’t from New York,” Sasha said, *irked by his obliviousness even as she strove to preserve it*. (Egan, p. 14)

As to their form, the adjuncts ascertained in the texts are either adverbs, or prepositional phrases, or non-finite constructions. Adverbs and prepositional phrases seem to be the domain of manner adjunct proper, whereas subject adjuncts employ participial non-finite constructions and adverbs.

The distribution of adverbs and prepositional phrases in this function within the individual texts (true reporting clause, genuine reporting verbs) is shown in Table 7.

| Sample / Language | Adjunct – Total | | Adverbs | | Prepositional phrases | | Participial constructions | |
|----------------------|-----------------|---------|---------|---------|--------------------------|--------|------------------------------|--------|
| | Total | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 8 | 100.00% | 7 | 87.50% | 0 | 0.00% | 1 | 12.50% |
| Johnson | 2 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 1 | 50.00% | 1 | 50.00% |
| Tartt | 10 | 100.00% | 5 | 50.00% | 3 | 30.00% | 2 | 20.00% |
| English | 20 | 100.00% | 12 | 60.00% | 4 | 20.00% | 4 | 20.00% |
| Svěrák | 9 | 100.00% | 5 | 55.56% | 4 | 44.44% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Šindelka | 8 | 100.00% | 8 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Tučková | 13 | 100.00% | 13 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Czech | 30 | 100.00% | 26 | 86.67% | 4 | 13.33% | 0 | 0.00% |

Table 7: Distribution of manner adjuncts expressing the manner of speaking or the state of the speaker in the examined texts – according to the form

Table 7 shows that most of the manner adjuncts take the form of an adverb, both in Czech and English, with relatively little preference for prepositional phrases. However, some authors (Svěrák, Tartt) display a nearly balanced use of the adjuncts of both types. Johnson seldom employs adjuncts in this function and thus his only instance expressed by means of a prepositional phrase is insignificant. Participial constructions seem to be the domain of English with no instance found in the Czech texts where it is considered archaic.

The distribution in relation to the individual genuine reporting verbs³⁶ is shown in Table 8.

| Sample / Language | Adjuncts | | Say / říci, říkat | | Ask / ptát se, zeptat se | | Other | |
|----------------------|----------|------------------|-------------------|---------|-----------------------------|--------|-------|--------|
| | Total | % of all TRCs | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 8 | 15.09% | 6 | 75.00% | 1 | 12.50% | 1 | 12.50% |
| Johnson | 2 | 2.74% | 1 | 50.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 1 | 50.00% |
| Tartt | 10 | 29.41% | 10 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| English | 20 | 12.50% | 17 | 85.00% | 1 | 5.00% | 2 | 10.00% |
| Svěrák | 9 | 21.95% | 5 | 55.56% | 3 | 33.33% | 1 | 11.11% |
| Šindelka | 8 | 28.57% | 5 | 62.50% | 0 | 0.00% | 3 | 37.50% |
| Tučková | 13 | 36.11% | 3 | 23.08% | 3 | 23.08% | 7 | 53.85% |
| Czech | 30 | 28.57% | 13 | 43.33% | 6 | 20.00% | 11 | 36.67% |

Table 8: Distribution of manner adjuncts in the examined texts – in regard to the individual reporting verbs

The data in Table 8 show that using a manner adjunct to indicate the manner of speaking or the state of the subject concerns only about 19% of all the true reporting clauses with genuine reporting verbs within the analysed texts (12.50% in the English texts and 28.57% in the Czech texts). Czech appears to show a higher preference for their use, which is fully in line with the tendency toward diversity governing Czech reporting clauses. However, any generalization is problematic due to the relatively low number of the relevant manner adjuncts in the examined samples. Also, there are significant differences in the style of each author or perhaps the nature of their narratives. Johnson uses adjuncts in this function very rarely, which is to be expected as his novel is the most dynamic in the whole set. On the other hand, Tartt, Šindelka, and notably Tučková tend to employ manner adjuncts rather generously. In case of Tučková, this seems to be a characteristic feature of her writing style – she abundantly employs both expressive reporting verbs and manner adjuncts (see Section 5.4.1).

As to the question which reporting verb is modified in this fashion the most, the answer is *say* for the English texts and “other” verbs in the Czech texts – which seems to correspond to the frequency of use of various reporting verbs in the given language. The tendency to modify the basic verb *say / říci, říkat* is, however, quite dominant in both the Czech and English texts (perhaps with the exception of Tučková) and it is logical: an adverbial

³⁶ For the definition of genuine reporting verbs, see Section 5.2.4; also see Kučerová, 1975, p. 9.

modifying an elementary, prototypical, yet semantically less specific verb of speaking such as *say* could easily substitute a more specific reporting verb which would fit into the category of “other” verbs.

5.4.1 Competition in indicating the manner of speaking: the manner adjunct, or the verb

In terms of the competition in indicating the manner of speaking, two options stand out: the author can either employ a “strong” verb, or choose a manner adjunct proper. (The choice, however, does not exist in all imaginable instances as there are limitations set by the lexicon of the respective language.)

Bearing in mind that such an option is not always available in full extent, this thesis takes the view that after restructuring the reporting clause, the same content can be quite often expressed either with a manner adjunct or a “strong” verb (or a combination of both), therefore the usage of any of these groups can be considered a stylistic choice in most instances.

In this category, only such reporting verbs are included which could be classified as genuine, as defined in Section 5.2.4. Individual genuine reporting verbs are not numerous in either the Czech or the English samples and moreover, not every genuine reporting verb would indicate the manner of speaking. As “other” reporting verbs are by far more common in Czech than in English, they are also more common in the Czech sample in this particular function of indicating the manner of speaking.

Verbs within this category could convey loudness of speech³⁷, such as *šeptnout/šeptat/zašeptat* [*whisper*], *mručet* [*grumble*], *mumlat* [*mumble*], *špitnout* [*whisper timidly*] or *zavolat* [*call*], *hlásit* [*announce*], *křičet/zakřičet/rozkřičet se/vykřiknout* [*shout*], *zařvat* [*yell*]. In the English samples, these verbs were found: *call*, *cry*, *shout*.

Verbs can also refer to the way of pronouncing, especially if the manner of pronunciation is not standard: *mručet* [*grumble*], *mumlat* [*mumble*].

Other verbs may designate a manner of speech in general: *sing*, *číst* [*read*], *odříkávat* [*recite*].

Many of the verbs falling into this category also indicate an emotional attitude of the speaker: *cry*, *shout*, *křičet/zakřičet/rozkřičet se* [*yell*], *vykřiknout* [*cry out*], *zařvat* [*shout*],

³⁷ Obviously, the semantic field of these verbs often includes information beyond mere loudness of speech and the categories are thus mutually non-exclusive.

špitnout [*whisper timidly*], zasyčet [*hiss*], vypravit (ze sebe) [*manage to say*], vyrazit (ze sebe) [*force oneself to say*].

As transpires from the examples, both the “strong” verb and the manner adjunct expressing the emotions of the speaker or the manner of speaking are more common in Czech than in English. “Strong” verbs are used less frequently than manner adjuncts in both languages. This is possibly due to the limitations on verb diversity in English. Exact data are adduced in Table 9.

| Sample / Language | True reporting clauses with genuine reporting verbs | | Verbs expressing the manner of speaking | | Manner adjuncts (all types) | |
|----------------------|--|---------|--|---|-----------------------------|---|
| | abs. | % | abs. | % of all true reporting clauses with genuine reporting verbs | abs. | % of manner adjuncts in true reporting clauses with genuine reporting verbs |
| Egan | 53 | 100.00% | 1 | 1.89% | 8 | 15.09% |
| Johnson | 73 | 100.00% | 2 | 2.74% | 2 | 2.74% |
| Tartt | 34 | 100.00% | 4 | 11.76% | 10 | 29.41% |
| English – Total | 160 | 100.00% | 7 | 4.38% | 20 | 12.50% |
| Svěrák | 41 | 100.00% | 4 | 9.76% | 9 | 21.95% |
| Šindelka | 28 | 100.00% | 8 | 28.57% | 8 | 28.57% |
| Tučková | 36 | 100.00% | 9 | 25.00% | 13 | 36.11% |
| Czech – Total | 105 | 100.00% | 21 | 20.00% | 30 | 28.57% |

Table 9: Verbs expressing the manner of speaking vs. manner adjuncts

5.4.2 Other means of expressing the manner of speaking

Regarding the explicit means of expressing a manner of speaking other than those discussed in Sections 5.4 and 5.4.1, the options chosen by the authors are rather idiosyncratic. Once again, most of the means to express the manner of speaking are intrinsically connected with the state of the subject; no clear-cut division between the two phenomena seems possible.

One of the options available to fiction writers is to employ an adjective which – by expressing the mood of the speaker – will also shed light on the manner of speaking. No such instance was recorded in any of the texts. However, one instance of a similar phenomenon is to be found in Svěrák’s text: here the typical form of the subject denoting the speaker (Mr. Plíšek) is replaced with a metaphorical expression to indicate the speaker’s emotions and the way of speaking, see Example 28.

(28): „*Přespal bych v Praze u bratra, on by byl rád, ale předloni umřel,*“ *řekla hromádka neštěstí z daleké Horní Hrudky* [said the bundle of misery from the far away village of Horní Hrudka]. (Svěrák, p. 78)

There may also be other signals for interpreting the manner of speaking. For instance, the manner of speaking may be deduced from the semantic or pragmatic content of the reported clause or purely from the context in which the communication takes place. However, these signals are beyond the scope of this thesis.

5.5 The object referring to the addressee, and the vocative

This section deals with the object within the reporting clause that refers to the character who is the intended addressee of the content of the reported clause, and a functionally similar means, which is the vocative. For a stylistic analysis to be feasible, a requirement must be met: it needs to be ensured that there truly is a choice for the author to either express or omit the relevant object referring to the addressee (this choice is taken for granted with the vocative in the reported clause). For this reason, only genuine reporting verbs were included in the analysis, as most of the non-genuine reporting verbs lack an option to express the addressee of the direct speech. See Examples 29 and 30 below – while neither of them expresses the addressee, in the case of a genuine reporting verb in Example 29, there is the possibility to do so (insertion hinted at with the words in brackets), whereas in Example 30, it is impossible (at least without major restructuring of the reporting clause). This is decided by the valency of the particular group of verbs (genuine reporting verbs allow an object-addressee, while typically non-genuine reporting verbs do not).

(29): — *Já jsem taky bohyně, a viděla jsi u mě někdy nějakého? ptala se (jí)* [she asked (*her*)]. (Tučková, p. 16)

(30): „*Tak jo,*“ *obrátila se sestra k odchodu* [the nurse turned to leave]. (Svěrák, p. 70)

Furthermore, in some cases of genuine reporting verbs, an explicit object expressing the addressee is required or its absence in the surface syntactic structure would be unusual and marked – this appears to be the case of the verb *tell* in the English sample and possibly also the verb *poradit* [advise] in the Czech sample. All the other genuine reporting verbs in the examined material seem to be free in respect of expressing the object-addressee.

The object-addressee takes the form of an indirect object (see Example 31), or of a prepositional object (see Example 32) in the examined material. The choice of the form of the complement depends on the valency of the particular verb.

(31): “*You in a big hurry this morning?*” he asked **my mother**. (Tartt, p. 10)

(32): “*You’re not taking the train?*” he said **to me**. (Tartt, p. 10)

The sample material of true reporting clauses with a genuine reporting verb (minus the instances of obligatory object-addressee, the verbs *tell* and *poradit*) to be analysed is 254 reporting clauses (see Table 10). In all of these 254 reporting clauses, there is an option for the author to express the object-addressee explicitly; yet, in fact, the addressee in form of an object is expressed in 19 instances only (7.48% of all the analysed samples). It may be therefore inferred that unless there is a specific reason for making the object in those cases explicit, the writer chooses an economical approach and does not express the object in the surface structure. What could be the factors influencing the presence of or the absence of object-addressee in the surface structure?

One reason for employing an object expressing the addressee might be to disambiguate the addressee in the situations where there are more than two speakers. Unfortunately, the data in the examined sample are insufficient to verify this claim with any certainty.

Another function may be found in initial turns of the dialogue where the participating characters are introduced. This can be the case in Example 33, the first direct speech in the entire novel (although the interacting characters had been presented earlier in the third-person narrative).

(33): — *Vidím nohy! Tatínek je doma! křikne za sebe na Surmenu. — Tak přece je doma!* (Tučková, p. 7)

This function does not seem to be limited to the beginnings of the novels, but it can also be used in instances when the scene changes, again to re-establish the interlocutors on the scene, see Example 34. In Example 34, the scene is changed by the transition from a 3 person scene on a street to a 2 person scene in a car. The direct speech in here is the first direct speech after a change of scene in the narration.

(34): “*Are you okay?*” *I said to her timidly as the cab sped away.* (Tartt, p. 15)³⁸

The object expressing the addressee of the reported clause can also be used to emphasize the direction of speech, perhaps even the pointedness of it, such as in Example 35.

(35): — *Otři si boty, ať nenaděláš, řekne jí nazlobeně [...]* (Tučková, p. 8)

In one instance, the object indicating the addressee of the direct speech does not refer to the person who is the actual addressee, but rather to the place to which the speaker pays his attention at the moment of speaking; this case is, however, quite exceptional, serving a

³⁸ See Appendix for broader context, p. xv.

different purpose than other examples included in this section and it seems to fit to this section only because of its rather misleading form. See Example 36.

(36): *Docent Blesk řekl svému počítači* [The Associate Professor Blesk said to his computer]: „Pojďte dál, vím o vás, pane Plíšek, jenom uložím jednu blbost a budu se vám věnovat.“ (Svěrák, p. 69)

The distribution of objects expressing the addressee and vocatives in direct speech with true reporting clauses is presented in Table 10.

| Sample / Language | TRCs with a genuine reporting verb | | Object-addressee in a TRC with a genuine reporting verb | | The vocative in a TRC with a genuine reporting verb | | Both object-addressee and the vocative in a TRC with a genuine reporting verb | |
|-------------------|------------------------------------|---------|---|--------|---|--------|---|-------|
| | Total | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 49 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Johnson | 73 | 100.00% | 5 | 6.85% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Tartt | 34 | 100.00% | 7 | 20.59% | 4 | 11.76% | 1 | 2.94% |
| English | 156 | 100.00% | 12 | 7.69% | 4 | 2.56% | 1 | 0.64% |
| Svěrák | 40 | 100.00% | 2 | 5.00% | 12 | 30.00% | 1 | 2.50% |
| Šindelka | 22 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 3 | 13.64% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Tučková | 36 | 100.00% | 5 | 13.89% | 5 | 13.89% | 1 | 2.78% |
| Czech | 98 | 100.00% | 7 | 7.14% | 20 | 20.41% | 2 | 2.04% |

Table 10: Distribution of the vocative and non-obligatory objects expressing the addressee in the true reporting clause with a genuine reporting verb

Table 10 shows that the English and Czech samples use objects expressing the addressee in about 7% of true reporting clauses with genuine reporting verbs. On the other hand, vocatives are more common in the Czech samples and their frequencies vary according to the nature of the texts.³⁹ Furthermore, the table also shows that vocatives in a reported clause and objects expressing the addressee in the relevant reporting clause are rarely expressed both at the same time. This finding can be seen as a confirmation of the original assumption that vocatives and objects expressing the addressee serve the same function. As they are functionally similar, there is little need to use them both simultaneously.

The (rare) instances where both phenomena co-occur are specific and the duplicity is exploited functionally. See Examples 37, 38, and 39:

³⁹ A possible explanation of why Svěrák's text uses vocatives so frequently could be that the frequent use of vocatives seems to be dictated by the Czech social norms governing such social situations (a patient addressing his doctor, a younger person politely addressing an elderly person).

(37): *Docent Blesk řekl svému počítači [Associate Professor Blesk said to his computer]: „Pojďte dál, vím o vás, pane Plíšek, jenom uložím jednu blbost a budu se vám věnovat.“* (Svěrák, p. 69)

(38): *“No, Braden,” I heard him say to the boy, who trotted to keep up, “you shouldn’t think that way, it’s more important to have a job you like—”* (Tartt, p. 16)

(39): — *Holčičko, prosím tě, nevíš, kde tady bydlí bohyně? zavolala pak na ni ta ženská lísavě. [the woman called to her fawningly]* (Tučková, p. 18)

In Example 37, the object-addressee in the reporting clause does not refer to the same participant as the vocative in the reported clause. In this example, the use of object-addressee expresses the circumstances of the utterance (Dr. Blesk did not look up to greet the patient) and also possibly hints at the manner of speaking (Dr. Blesk sees the patient as just one of many – he is tired, uninterested).

In Example 38, a new character (Braden) is introduced. The vocative informs the reader about the character’s name and the object-addressee specifies the character further.

In Example 39, the main character, a girl called Dora throughout the narration, is addressed by another character in a way which may be confusing for the reader as the narrator systematically calls her by her first name “Dora” rather than “holčička” [the little girl]. However, the speaker in Example 39 cannot use her first name as she does not know it then.

5.6 The position of a true reporting clause

The position of a true reporting clause means, in the context of this thesis, the relative position of a reporting clause in respect to its reported clause. For the purposes of the analysis, four different positions were identified in the examined samples: initial, final and two medial types.

Initial position of a true reporting clause means that the reporting clause precedes the reported clause in the narrative. The reporting clause is separated from the reported clause by means of a secondary boundary mark, which is, in this particular instance, a comma in the English texts and a colon in the Czech texts. An initial reporting clause is exemplified in Example 40.

(40): *Jun Do said, “I thought you were looking for a guy?”* (Johnson, p. 26)

The final position of a true reporting clause means that the reporting clause follows after the reported clause and a secondary boundary mark, such as a comma, a question mark, an exclamation mark is the separating punctuation in this case⁴⁰, etc. See Example 41.

(41): *“I wish,” Gil said. (Johnson, p. 26)*

Medial position is the most complex one. For a medial position, it is required that there is more than one reported clause or that one reported clause is split into two incomplete parts. In both languages, preference is clearly given to keeping sentences intact on the one hand and to splitting them on clausal boundaries on the other if necessary. In some examples, it is unclear whether reported clauses were split on clausal boundaries or whether they should be treated as two separate sentences. See Example 42.

(42): *“Okay,” she said. “Steal it.” (Egan, p. 4)*

The characteristic feature of a medial reporting clause is that it is placed between parts of the reported clause. The two types of medial true reporting clauses (medial-proper: Example 43; medial-final: Example 44) are distinguished in this thesis on the basis of their formal characteristics, viz. punctuation. One functional distinction between the two types is that typically the medial-final type does not split one sentence within the reported clause into two parts, while the medial-proper type does not usually stand between two sentences within the reported clause, but rather splits one sentence into two parts.

The medial-proper type is an instance of a true reporting clause placed medially between two split parts of the reported speech or between sentences of a reported clause, where the reporting clause is separated from the reported clause by means of secondary boundary marks (e.g. comma, question mark, exclamation mark) on each end. See Example 43.

(43): *„Jakub není blázen,“ vypraví ze sebe Petr nejistě, „ani násilník, ani nic jinýho.(...)“ (Šindelka, p. 14)*

Another distinct type of a medial reporting clause is the medial-final type. It represents a transitional type between the medial-proper type (in that it is placed medially between two chunks of a reported clause or, more typically, between two separate sentences of the reported

⁴⁰ Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1734) list exclamation marks and question marks among primary terminals and they mostly appear to serve this function. In terms of direct speech, however, it seems wiser to consider them ambiguous, serving both as primary terminals and secondary boundary marks. This approach is consistent with treating direct speech (consisting of a reported clause and a reporting clause) as one sentence.

clause) and the final type (in that it is concluded with a primary terminal – which is almost exclusively a full stop). See Example 44.

(44): „Počkejte,“ přerušil ho docent. „Nejste sám, pane Plíšek, koho takové věci potkávají.“ (Svěrák, p. 72)

Instances similar to Example 44 are rather numerous in the examined samples and this seems to provoke doubts as to how to analyse Example 44 in terms of reported and reporting clause. A possible reinterpretation suggests that Example 44 is actually two instances of direct speech – the former part of the example being direct speech with a true reporting clause in the final position, whereas the latter part could be seen as direct speech with no reporting clause. This interpretation, however, seems unsatisfactory. This thesis is based on an assumption that the structuring into paragraphs is not random, that thoughts presented in one paragraph show a certain cohesion and should be taken as one instance of direct speech (with a reported clause consisting of several sentences).

Another problem was posed by the interpretation of several instances of direct speech by Tartt, such as Example 45 below.

(45): “Honestly—” fanning the air in front of her face — “it would have been okay if not for all the stopping and starting. I was perfectly fine and then it just hit me.” (Tartt, p. 16)

In Example 45, two interpretation of the reporting clause seems possible: it could either be a true reporting clauses in medial-proper position (to be rephrased as follows: “*Honestly– “she said, fanning the air in front of her face, “it would (...)*”) or it could be a false reporting clause inserted medially (“*Honestly– “She was fanning the air in front of her face. “It would (...)*”). The first-mentioned option seems more likely. For the inserted non-final phrase to be a false reporting clause, it would probably start with a capital letter. Similarly, the second part of the reported clause would also probably start with a capital letter. From a different perspective, it would be unusual for a false reporting clause to split a reporting clause into two dependent, incomplete parts.

Following the formal classification described above, the analysed samples were investigated to find out the distribution of initial, final, medial-proper and medial-final positions. The results are shown in Table 11 below.

| Sample / Language | True reporting clauses | | Initial | | Final | | Medial-proper | | Medial-final | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|---------|---------|--------|-------|--------|---------------|-------|--------------|--------|
| | total | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 55 | 100.00% | 2 | 3.64% | 23 | 41.82% | 0 | 0.00% | 30 | 54.55% |
| Johnson | 73 | 100.00% | 14 | 19.18% | 31 | 42.47% | 2 | 2.74% | 26 | 35.62% |

| Sample / Language | True reporting clauses | | Initial | | Final | | Medial-proper | | Medial-final | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|---------|---------|--------|-------|--------|---------------|--------|--------------|--------|
| | total | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Tartt | 36 | 100.00% | 1 | 2.78% | 18 | 50.00% | 10 | 27.78% | 7 | 19.44% |
| English | 164 | 100.00% | 17 | 10.37% | 72 | 43.90% | 12 | 7.32% | 63 | 38.41% |
| Svěrák | 85 | 100.00% | 17 | 20.00% | 60 | 70.59% | 0 | 0.00% | 8 | 9.41% |
| Šindelka | 38 | 100.00% | 3 | 7.89% | 27 | 71.05% | 3 | 7.89% | 5 | 13.16% |
| Tučková | 54 | 100.00% | 12 | 22.22% | 36 | 66.67% | 3 | 5.56% | 3 | 5.56% |
| Czech | 177 | 100.00% | 32 | 18.08% | 123 | 69.49% | 6 | 3.39% | 16 | 9.04% |

Table 11: Distribution of true reporting clauses in terms of their position

Table 11 shows that the most common type of a true reporting clause in both languages is the one placed after the reported clause, i.e. finally positioned true reporting clause. The analysed Czech samples appear to prefer it in about 70% of all instances, the proportion in English being more modest with only about 44% of all reporting clauses placed in final position. For most of the Czech texts the second best option is the initial position, while for the English samples it is the medial-final position. The medial-final type appears to be so frequent as to compete with the final type for primacy in the English samples. It seems to be preferred because of the possibility to identify the speaker, especially in long paragraphs, early in the text, usually after the first sentence of the reported clause, whereas with the final position, the identification would, inconveniently for the reader, come at the very end of the paragraph. The medial-proper type appears to be the least popular in both Czech and English. The reason for this may be that it often splits the utterance into two dependent, incomplete chunks (such as a main clause and a dependent clause), thus interrupting the natural flow of the character's speech.

These findings seem to be in contradiction with the claim by Jozef Mistrík, a Slovak researcher in stylistics. In his *Štylistika slovenského jazyka* (1970, pp. 377-378), he stipulates that, “The initial position of the reporting clause suggests a tranquil, intellectual course of the direct speech with the objective sentence perspective topic – focus. The final position of the reporting clause is the accompanying feature of the expressive, dynamic direct speech with subjective sentence perspective focus – topic. Inserting the reporting clause into the reported clause often means an indirect emphasis on the focus following after the “pause” filled with the reporting clause.”⁴¹ (Translation: MS) Should this claim be valid for Czech and English

⁴¹ “Anteponovanie uvádzacej vety naznačuje pokojný, intelektuálny priebeh priamej reči s perspektívou východisko – jadro. Postponovanie uvádzacej vety je sprievodným prostriedkom expresívnej, dynamickej priamej reči so subjektívnym členením výpovede pri perspektíve jadro – východisko. Vsúvanie takejto vety do

fiction, it has to be concluded that the marked word order is by far more common than the unmarked word order, which is unusual. It seems more appropriate to infer that the position of the reporting clause in fiction does not primarily depend on topic-focus articulation but rather on other factors: the chief among which are the customary sentence order in direct speech, semantic relations and linking of the sentences.

5.6.1 Comparison with Pípalová's results

Pípalová reached surprisingly different conclusions in her study (2012, pp. 85-86). Although finally positioned reporting clauses also dominated (74.66% for Czech, 71.34% for English), surprisingly the frequency of occurrence of the medial types was very low in her samples (12.80% for Czech and 13.33% for English) in comparison with the findings in this thesis (both medial positions together: 12.43% for Czech and 45.73% for English). Reasons might be several: Pípalová might have subsumed what is understood as medial-final position in this thesis under final position due to terminological differences. Also, the texts examined by Pípalová are somewhat older than those in the sample examined in this thesis – it might be supposed that a development has taken place in English fiction towards medial-final type. Finally, the difference may be due to the personal preferences of the authors. This is, however, less likely as all the three English writers attested a significantly higher preference for medial-final position than the average established by Pípalová.

5.6.2 Word order and the position of a true reporting clause

Of the many aspects which can be examined as regards the relationship between the form/semantics of true reporting clauses and their positions, this analysis concentrates on two. The first of them is the question of direct/indirect word order and inversion in both Czech and English reporting clauses.

Inversion is to be understood here as the position of the subject in respect to its finite verb. If the subject follows after the verb, the word order is called “inverted”. Generally speaking, word order does not lend itself easily to the analysis as the rules of word order in Czech and English are very different, with Czech word order being mostly free and flexible, whereas the English word order is more fixed. However, the results of the analysis show that the free Czech word order is somewhat more bound in reporting clauses, whereas the English

priamej reči je často nepriamym zdôraznením jadra, ktoré ide po „prestávke“ vyplnenej uvádzacou vetou.“ (Mistrik, 1970, pp. 377-378)

word order displays a remarkable freedom in this very position as opposed to rules governing word order in other types of sentences.

Jelínek (in Grepl et al., 1995, pp. 659-660) points out that in finally and medially positioned Czech reporting clauses, inversion typically takes place. On the contrary, if the reporting clause stands in the initial position, the inversion does not typically occur.

Similarly, Quirk et al. (1985, 1022) say that inversion (in English reporting clauses) takes place under certain conditions mostly with the verb *say*, with a subject other than a personal pronoun, and with the reporting speech in medial position; then it is considered neutral. However, it is unusual and archaic if the subject of an inverted reporting clause is a personal pronoun. Inversion also does not take place when the tense of the verb is other than present or past simple.

To allow comparison, criteria identical to those presented in Pípalová's paper (2012, p. 96) were applied. The analysis took into consideration only those true reporting clauses which had a substantival subject (rather than pronominal or unexpressed subject). The total sample was than larger than Pípalová's (117 reporting clauses in her paper vs. 240 reporting clauses here)

The results are shown in Table 12 for initial reporting clauses and in Table 13 for non-initial reporting clauses.

| Sample / Language | Initial TRCs (Total) | | Inverted word order | |
|----------------------|----------------------|---------|---------------------|--------|
| | Total | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 0 | - | 0 | - |
| Johnson | 14 | 100% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Tartt | 0 | - | 0 | - |
| English | 14 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Svěrák | 17 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Šindelka | 1 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Tučková | 6 | 100.00% | 1 | 16.67% |
| Czech | 24 | 100.00% | 1 | 4.17% |

Table 12: Percentage of initial true reporting clauses with inverted word order

| Sample / Language | Non-initial TRCs (Total) | | Inverted word order | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
| | Total | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 29 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Johnson | 43 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Tartt | 8 | 100.00% | 5 | 62.50% |
| English | 80 | 100.00% | 5 | 6.25% |
| Svěrák | 68 | 100.00% | 68 | 100.00% |

| Sample / Language | Non-initial TRCs (Total) | | Inverted word order | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
| | Total | % | abs. | % |
| Šindelka | 25 | 100.00% | 25 | 100.00% |
| Tučková | 29 | 100.00% | 29 | 100.00% |
| Czech | 122 | 100.00% | 122 | 100.00% |

Table 13: Percentage of non-initial true reporting clauses with inverted word order

The unambiguous results in Table 12 and Table 13 seem to indicate a petrified word order pattern, even more petrified for the Czech texts than for the English texts. Both English and Czech reporting clauses in the initial position follow the *subject-verb* word order with one exception (Example 46) where the inversion is caused by a temporal clause preceding the reporting clause.

(46): *A když ji ukládá do dek a vydělaných ovčích kůží za pecí, do tepla, které se rozlévá všude kolem ní a po spařeném máku i v útrokách jejího žaludku, stačí Dora ještě zaslechnout: — Nic se neboj, však my to spolu zvládneme. Budeš mi dělat andžjela. A budeš se mít dobře. Uvidíš.* (Tučková, p. 10)

In non-initial (medial and final) positions, the inversion seems to be mandatory in Czech and marginal in English. Surprisingly, inverted word order occurs systematically even with non-genuine reporting verbs (see Example 47). The English texts prefer the subject-verb word order, but Tartt shows a certain inclination towards the inverted word order (see Example 48) – the reporting clauses with substantival subject in her sample were, however, only 8, which does not allow to make any generalization.

(47): „Vid'te!“ *poposedl si téměř radostně Adolf Plíšek.* (Svěrák, p. 75)

(48): “Tell me,” said my mother – fingertips at her temple – “was it just me, or was that cab unbelievably—”(Tartt, p. 16)

5.6.2.1 Comparison with Pípalová's results

The findings in Pípalová's study (2012, pp. 96-99) correspond to those presented in this thesis with one significant exception. Both his thesis and Pípalová's paper came to the conclusion that in Czech, inversion of an explicit (i.e. not unexpressed) subject in non-initial position is almost omnipresent (92.33% in Pípalová's sample, 100% in this thesis), whereas it is rare in the initial position (0% in Pípalová, 4.17% in this thesis). In English, the inversion in initial position was not detected in either Pípalová's paper or this thesis. In non-initial position in her English samples, Pípalová counted about 70% of inverted subjects, whereas in this thesis it was only 6.25%. This is in stark contrast – and the explanation is provided by

Pípalová herself (2012, p. 99), “*It should be noted that some original sources used inversion consistently (Tolkien, Murdoch), while others defied it, in line with the rather fixed word order in English (McEwan).*” The present writer is inclined to believe that the inverted word order was a common feature of earlier fiction (perhaps also a tool for archaisation) but more modern American fiction appears to avoid it as demonstrated in Table 13.

5.6.3 Syntactic complexity and the position of the true reporting clause

The second question to be examined is whether the formal differences established in Section 5.6 are also reflected on the syntactical and semantic level. Referring back to Sections 2.2.3.3 and 5.6, the reader may recall that both Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1023) and Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1020) agree that the initially-placed reporting clause is to be treated differently from the finally-placed reporting clause in terms of syntactic analysis. No similar claim for Czech was found in the Czech grammars studied by the present writer. It is thus worth analysing whether there is any systematic difference between the initial and non-initial reporting clauses in the examined samples.

In Table 14, the results of an analysis corresponding to that conducted in Section 5.6 are shown; this time, however, the initial/non-initial position of the reporting clause was taken into the account. The purpose of the analysis is to find where the simplest possible syntactic structure would occur most frequently – whether in the initial, or the non-initial position.

| Sample / Language | All TRCs | Initial TRCs | | | Non-initial TRCs | | |
|----------------------|----------|--------------|-------------------|------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | | total | Simplest possible | | total | Simplest possible | |
| | | | abs. | % (of total initial TRCs) | | abs. | % (of total non-initial TRCs) |
| Egan | 55 | 0 | 0 | - | 53 | 34 | 64.15% |
| Johnson | 73 | 14 | 11 | 78.57% | 58 | 47 | 81.03% |
| Tartt | 36 | 1 | 0 | 0.00% | 33 | 8 | 24.24% |
| English | 164 | 15 | 11 | 73.33% | 144 | 89 | 61.81% |
| Svěrák | 85 | 17 | 2 | 11.76% | 68 | 14 | 20.59% |
| Šindelka | 38 | 1 | 0 | 0.00% | 25 | 11 | 44.00% |
| Tučková | 54 | 6 | 1 | 16.67% | 29 | 5 | 17.24% |
| Czech | 177 | 24 | 3 | 12.50% | 122 | 30 | 24.59% |

Table 14: The syntactically simplest possible structure reflecting the position of true reporting clauses

The data in Table 14 show a great variance among the authors. The overall data seem to attest an unexpected result. The English samples taken together appear to employ the simplest syntactic structure in the initial position slightly more often than it is the case in the non-initial

position. However, the present writer assumed that it would be those non-initial reporting clauses, where the simplest possible syntactic structure would dominate – in accordance with the comparison of non-initial reporting clauses, as opposed to initial TRCs, to a particular type of comment clauses (see Section 5.1). A closer look will reveal that the results were skewed by one rather exceptional sample, namely that by Johnson. If Johnson's text is disregarded, it would arise from the gathered evidence that there is not a single instance of simplest possible syntactic structure in initial position in the other two examined English texts. In the Czech texts, with the exception of Šindelka's sample, the presence of the simplest syntactic structure in non-initial position is higher than in initial position; and in both cases, the simplest syntactic structures in reporting clauses are rather marginal.

6 No reporting clause

Direct speech with no reporting clause is, in fact, the simplest construction of all the options presented in Chapters 5, 6, and 7. It contains the reported clause only, the reporting clause is absent. Direct speech occupies the whole paragraph.

Referring back to Table 2, there is a difference in the frequencies of omitted reporting clauses between Czech and English, after the specific and predominantly English feature of false reporting clauses is classified separately. Pípalová (2012, p. 101) offers several sound reasons to explain this difference. Reporting clauses in English are considered automatic, stereotypical units due to their repetitious form, while in Czech they are subject to the author's ingenuity and vary more significantly. In English, less is gained when the reporting clause is omitted: given their shortness the effect of "speeding up" the pace as observable in Czech (see Section 6.1 below) is less significant, while the danger of ambiguity in terms of speaker identification arises more dramatically due to structural differences between English and Czech (such as obligatory expression of gender in verb forms in Czech, Czech has more grammatical means to specify the speaker). English, and to a lesser degree Czech, also has another option, which is using a false reporting clause (see Chapter 7).

In this chapter, the crucial question to be answered is how the speaker may be identified if a reporting clause, either true or false, is absent.

In an attempt to answer the question above this thesis needs to resort to terminology used in dramatic theory. It seems a plausible hypothesis that the situation would be different if there were only two possible speakers in the foreground of the scene (or communicative situation) at the given moment when the dialogue⁴² took place, or if there were three or more participants (or potential speakers).

In Table 15 below, the results of a survey of the examined material are presented showing the number of possible speakers in the foreground of the scene in respect to the number of instances of direct speech in the respective texts. It is relevant to note that only human characters were considered as possible speakers (no speaking animals or similar personified elements appeared in the texts), but not all of the humans were possible speakers due to their incapacity to do so – such as baby boy Jakoubek in the first scene in Tučková. While other characters may be present on the scene (in the background), for them to be reflected in the analysis which led to Table 15 they needed to be foregrounded by the author.

⁴² As noted in Chapter 2 (see Footnote 10), dialogue in our (as well as Bečka's) conception refers to an enacted (stylized) conversation of an unspecified number of participants.

Such foregrounding typically includes a sentence of appearance on the scene and is confirmed by the first direct speech they pronounce.

| Sample / Language | DS with no RC (Total) | | DS with no RC in 2 person scenes | | DS with no RC in 3 or more person scenes | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|---------|-------------------------------------|--------|---|--------|
| | total | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 18 | 100.00% | 13 | 72.22% | 5 | 27.78% |
| Johnson | 9 | 100.00% | 6 | 66.67% | 3 | 33.33% |
| Tartt | 13 | 100.00% | 8 | 61.54% | 5 | 38.46% |
| English | 40 | 100.00% | 27 | 67.50% | 13 | 32.50% |
| Svěrák | 30 | 100.00% | 21 | 70.00% | 9 | 30.00% |
| Šindelka | 29 | 100.00% | 28 | 96.55% | 1 | 3.45% |
| Tučková | 29 | 100.00% | 24 | 82.76% | 5 | 17.24% |
| Czech | 88 | 100.00% | 73 | 82.95% | 15 | 17.05% |

Table 15: Distribution of direct speech with no reporting clause included in the examined material in respect to the number of participants or potential speakers present on the scene

Table 15 shows that direct speech with no reporting clause is more common in 2 person scenes than in 3 or more person scenes: both in the English and Czech samples and also in each prosaic text examined for the purpose of this analysis. It may be so because the narrative is so craftily designed by the writers that most often only two characters stay in the foreground of the scene. The reasons for this preference might vary: one of them might be to avoid the necessity of identifying speakers every time a person in a larger group of speakers speaks. A dialogue of two characters is also the simplest version of a dialogue: characters typically react to each other, both verbally and nonverbally, less ambiguity arises as to who the speaker is and who the addressee is.

However, if we want to confirm the hypothesis above and learn whether direct speech with no reporting clause is more common in 2 person scenes (“2PS”) or 3 or more person scenes (“3PS”), the figures in Table 15 above need to be compared with the number of all instances of direct speech, regardless of the presence or absence of a reporting clause. This is done in Table 16.

| Sample / Language | 2 person scenes | | | | 3 or more person scenes | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------|---------|---|--------|-------------------------|---------|---|--------|
| | Direct speech | | Direct speech with no reporting clause | | Direct speech | | Direct speech with no reporting clause | |
| | Total | % | abs. | % | total | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 64 | 100.00% | 13 | 20.31% | 19 | 100.00% | 5 | 26.32% |
| Johnson | 42 | 100.00% | 6 | 14.29% | 51 | 100.00% | 3 | 5.88% |
| Tartt | 33 | 100.00% | 8 | 24.24% | 26 | 100.00% | 5 | 19.23% |
| English | 139 | 100.00% | 27 | 19.42% | 96 | 100.00% | 13 | 13.54% |

| Sample / Language | 2 person scenes | | | | 3 or more person scenes | | | |
|----------------------|-----------------|---------|---|--------|-------------------------|---------|---|--------|
| | Direct speech | | Direct speech with no reporting clause | | Direct speech | | Direct speech with no reporting clause | |
| | Total | % | abs. | % | total | % | abs. | % |
| Svěrák | 83 | 100.00% | 21 | 25.30% | 32 | 100.00% | 9 | 28.13% |
| Šindelka | 65 | 100.00% | 28 | 43.08% | 7 | 100.00% | 1 | 14.29% |
| Tučková | 63 | 100.00% | 24 | 40.00% | 20 | 100.00% | 5 | 25.00% |
| Czech | 211 | 100.00% | 73 | 34.60% | 59 | 100.00% | 15 | 25.42% |

Table 16: Distribution of direct speech in 2 person scenes and 3 or more person scenes with no reporting clause with respect to all instances of direct speech in 2 person scenes or 3 or more person scenes respectively

Table 16 thus confirms our hypothesis that direct speech with no reporting clause will be more commonly used in 2 person scenes than in 3 or more person scenes. The only exception to this result seems to be ascertained in Egan and Svěrák. Conditions for employing direct speech with no reporting clause need to be further examined.

The functions of the reporting clause are stated in Section 4.1. Of these functions, the crucial one is speaker identification, while other functions – such as nonverbal communication, circumstances occurring during the speech, etc. – might be substituted by the reader's fantasy or are not relevant at all in the particular dialogue.

Theoretically, it may be assumed that a reporting clause (true or false) is omitted under these circumstances:

- a) The reporting clause is redundant as the speaker is already identifiable through other means;
- b) The reporting clause is redundant because in the particular dialogue it is irrelevant who the speaker is;
- c) The reporting clause is undesirable as it is the writer's intent that the reader does not know who the speaker is.

Point (c) is the most extreme and perhaps only a purely theoretical construct which may not find any real use. Similarly, point (b) seems rather rare and this approach is not applied in any of the examined samples.⁴³ All the examples of direct speech with no reporting clause in

⁴³ A possible realization of an authorial intent under point (b) may be a dialogue in *All the Light We Cannot See*, a novel by Anthony Doerr, which was also considered for inclusion into the examined material. In the relevant scene, a dialogue takes place between a museum guide and a group of children:

[The Guide:] “(...) the vault not be opened for two hundred years.”
“And?”

the examined material fall under the scope of point (a). However, it should be noted that speaker identifiability may be subjective in some instances and sometimes the reader must change his or her first assumption about the identity of the speaker and re-evaluate it in light of the context.

In the material examined, these means of speaker identification in direct speech with no reporting clause were found:

- Turn-taking;
- Vocatives or other means of referring to the addressee;
- Proximity principle across paragraph boundaries;
- Context in general.

It is vital to add that all these means can be used at once in a single sentence, also together with a reporting clause (true or false).

Turn-taking is the most prominent means of speaker identification. A paragraph between two instances of direct speech is a signal to the reader that turn-taking is likely to take place, although not necessarily. Here the distinction between 2 person scenes and 3 or more person scenes comes in useful. Quite often, the dialogue takes a form of a sequence of questions and answers; unless the questions are merely rhetorical, the reader assumes that the answer is given by a character other than the person asking the question. In 2 person scenes, this should be the other participant and no other means of signalling the speaker is necessary. However, in 3 or more person scenes, any of the other participants may reply. In this case, other ways of indicating the speaker should be applied.

*"And one hundred and ninety-six years have passed."
All the children remain quiet a moment. Several do math on their fingers. Then they raise their hands as one. "Can we see it?"
"No."
"Not even open the first door?"
"No."
"Have you seen it?"
"I have not." (Doerr, 2014, p. 22)*

In this particular case, the children are treated as a monolithic group with no attention paid to the particular individual. The reporting clause for the instances of direct speech uttered by the guide is omitted for the reason in point (a) but the same cannot be said about the instances of the children's direct speech. Is it always the same child speaking, or is it a different child each time? The reporting clause may be omitted because the answer to this question is irrelevant to the story.

An interesting solution appears in Egan (Example 49), which may also explain some of the reasons why direct speech with no reporting clause in 3 or more person scenes scored so high in Table 16. At the moment of the dialogue, four people were present on the scene – Alex, Sasha, an unnamed woman and a concierge, and any of them could participate in turn-taking.

(49): *Alex turned to the woman. “Where did this happen?”*
“In the ladies’ room. I think.”
“Who else was there?”
“No one.”
“It was empty?” (Egan, p. 11)

The speaker in the first line of Example 49 is indicated by a false reporting clause. However, the same clause also identifies the addressee – it can be assumed that Alex turned to a person to whom he talked. Therefore, it is implied that the speaker of the second line is the unnamed woman rather than Sasha or the concierge. The background knowledge about the situation also contributes to this conclusion. The speaker of the third line is then again Alex, although it could also be both Sasha and the concierge; however, such a change of speakers would be indicated by a reporting clause. In the fifth line, there is again no doubt that Alex is asking, this time a pattern in the structure question-answer emerges, with Alex assuming the role of an investigator and the unnamed woman being the interrogated person. Thus a scene of four possible speakers in the foreground turns into a scene with 2 participants, which allows for the mere turn-taking to determine the speaker. In the Table 17 below only such examples of turn-taking were included which took place in 2 person scenes, as in 3 or more person scenes the speaker of the next turn needs to be ascertained by other means as well (it is no longer a dialogue of two characters with the predictable structure of changing speakers in each paragraph).

| Sample / Language | DS with no RC in 2 person scenes | Turn-taking in 2 person scenes | |
|-------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | abs. | abs. | % of DS with no RC in 2 person scenes |
| Egan | 13 | 12 | 92.31% |
| Johnson | 6 | 5 | 83.33% |
| Tartt | 8 | 8 | 100.00% |
| English | 27 | 25 | 92.59% |
| Svěrák | 22 | 20 | 90.91% |
| Šindelka | 28 | 26 | 92.86% |
| Tučková | 24 | 17 | 70.83% |

| Sample / Language | DS with no RC in 2 person scenes | Turn-taking in 2 person scenes | |
|-------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | abs. | abs. | % of DS with no RC in 2 person scenes |
| Czech | 74 | 63 | 85.14% |

Table 17: Turn-taking in direct speech with no reporting clause in 2 person scenes

Vocatives and other means of identifying the addressee are less common than turn-taking. As shown in Table 18 below, vocatives are more common in this function in Czech, yet both languages use them relatively sparsely. For the purposes of identifying the speaker, vocatives may be placed in the preceding direct speech (typically a question) – after the change of speakers, the speaker is the one addressed in the preceding direct speech (unless other signals tell the reader otherwise) – see Example 50 below: although there is no reporting clause in the second line, there is little doubt that the speaker of line 2 is Alenka (also confirmed by the context: Alenka is a nurse at a psychiatric ward taking care of patients according to the doctor's instructions). Similarly, the addressee may also be indicated by means of a true or false reporting clause attached to the preceding direct speech (line 2 in Example 50). In 2 person scenes, the vocative in any instance of direct speech (and not in the preceding direct speech) also indicates the speaker of the particular direct speech (of the two participants, the person addressed by means of the vocative is the addressee, therefore the speaker must be the other person of the two) as it is not usual for a speaker to use the vocative to refer to himself or herself.

(50): „Já tady nejsem přes holínky, Alenko,“ odbyl to docent.
 „A inženýr na pětce má narozeniny a chce pivo. Můžu povolit na ty jeho prášky pivo?“
 (Svěrák, p. 70)

The proximity principle across paragraph boundaries takes two different forms in the examined material and these two forms are also treated separately in Table 18. First, it helps to identify the speaker in a way similar to that of a false reporting clause. Unlike the false reporting clause, however, it applies across paragraphs (see Chapter 7). Second, it shows the rare cases where the change of speakers does not take place and the speaker of the preceding paragraph is the same speaker as in the following paragraph. In these cases, the speaker is identified by means of the reporting clause in the preceding paragraph. It might be argued that this particular use of direct speech with no reporting clause is confusing for the reader as it breaks the expected chain of taking turns. To identify the speaker with certainty, the reader must rely on the context. Thus in Example 51, the doctor is the speaker in both paragraphs

and the paragraph boundary is most likely due to an implied pause in his phone call when the doctor listens to the other caller.

(51): *Zatímco pacient namítal, že nemá pyžamo, hlásil [doktor] do telefonu: „Alenko, připravte pro pana Plíška lůžko.“*

„Ne na pětce! Na trojce. Na pětce ho v žádném případě nechci, to zdůrazňuju!“
(Svěrák, p. 78)

| Sample / Language | DS with no RC – all | | Vocatives and other means of addressing | | False reporting clauses across paragraphs | | No turn-taking in DC with no RC | |
|----------------------|---------------------|---------|--|---------------------------|---|---------------------------|------------------------------------|--------|
| | abs. | % | abs. | % of all DS with no RC | abs. | % of all DS with no RC | abs. | % |
| Egan | 18 | 100.00% | 1 | 5.56% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Johnson | 9 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Tartt | 13 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 1 | 7.69% |
| English | 40 | 100.00% | 1 | 2.50% | 0 | 0.00% | 1 | 2.50% |
| Svěrák | 30 | 100.00% | 16 | 53.33% | 4 | 13.33% | 1 | 3.33% |
| Šindelka | 29 | 100.00% | 4 | 13.79% | 1 | 3.45% | 1 | 3.45% |
| Tučková | 29 | 100.00% | 5 | 17.24% | 5 | 17.24% | 3 | 10.34% |
| Czech | 88 | 100.00% | 25 | 28.41% | 10 | 11.36% | 5 | 5.68% |

Table 18: Distribution of vocatives and false reporting clauses across paragraphs in direct speech with no reporting clause

The data in Tables 18 and 19 require certain comments. First, as noted above, all the means indicated in Tables 18 and 19 can be used simultaneously all at once or only some of them may apply. Turn-taking proves to be the most common, virtually automatic means of indicating the speaker in 2 person scenes (3 or more person scenes were not reflected in Table 17 as the turn-taking in the scenes with more than two participants does not in itself identify the speaker unambiguously). The relatively low score for Johnson and Tučková is to be partially explained by the fact that often in conversation a nonverbal sign was given instead of a verbal reply (such as *She nodded* or *He shrugged*). These signs were not considered a true turn-taking for the purposes of this thesis.

Vocatives proved to be significantly more frequent in Czech than in English. The highest scoring writer, Svěrák, used vocatives in the actual direct speech with no reporting clause or the preceding direct speech in 53.33% instances but also the other two Czech writers achieved higher scores than any of the English writers. Svěrák's high score may be explained by the fact that the whole story takes place in a doctor's office and the predominant speakers are a doctor and an elderly man, in which situation Czech conventions require a frequent polite address of the other party: due to respect to the other man's social role and standing

(being a doctor) and due to the age of the patient. Nevertheless, addressing in general appears to be more common in Czech prose than in English fiction.

The special case of the column *False reporting clause across paragraph boundary* is worth comparing with the results in Table 2. This is done in Table 19 below. Even if the results adduced there are added to those in Table 18, English appears to use false reporting clauses significantly more often than Czech. The false reporting clauses are not split by a paragraph boundary in English (no documented case), while Czech appears to prefer the split form (with the exception of Šindelka).

| Sample / Language | Direct speech | | False reporting clause within the same paragraph | | False reporting clause across paragraph boundary | | Both instances together | |
|----------------------|---------------|---------|---|--------|---|-------|----------------------------|--------|
| | total | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 82 | 100.00% | 10 | 12.20% | 0 | 0.00% | 10 | 12.20% |
| Johnson | 94 | 100.00% | 11 | 11.70% | 0 | 0.00% | 11 | 11.70% |
| Tartt | 59 | 100.00% | 10 | 16.95% | 0 | 0.00% | 10 | 16.95% |
| English | 235 | 100.00% | 31 | 13.19% | 0 | 0.00% | 31 | 13.19% |
| Svěrák | 117 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 4 | 3.42% | 4 | 3.42% |
| Šindelka | 71 | 100.00% | 5 | 7.04% | 1 | 1.41% | 6 | 8.45% |
| Tučková | 83 | 100.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 5 | 6.02% | 5 | 6.02% |
| Czech | 271 | 100.00% | 5 | 1.85% | 10 | 3.69% | 15 | 5.54% |

Table 19: False reporting clauses within the paragraph and across paragraph boundary

The factors for identifying the speaker in direct speech with no reporting clause mentioned above all belong to the broad category of context. Context is the most potent and permeating factor in identifying the speaker and it is beyond the scope of this thesis to identify all the facets in which it may apply. In the examined samples, two other aspects of speaker identification through context were observed: the identification through unique gender on the scene (Example 52) and the repetitiveness in the structure indicating a single speaker (Example 53). Due to their elusiveness and contestable nature, these aspects of context were not reflected in Table 17.

The use of a grammatical means indicating gender is particularly useful in speaker identification where the indicated gender is unique on the scene. This disclosing of the speaker's gender is most typical of Czech due to its grammatical endings (where distinctive – such as participles); however, it is also present in English in a similar form as shown in Example 52, where there are three people present on the scene at the given moment – a male taxi driver, the son and the mother. The use of “she” in the second line shows it is not the mother speaking (she is not likely to speak of herself in 3rd person singular) but rather the son. Once again, other factors confirm that it is the son who speaks (the mother is sick at the

moment as mentioned several lines above in the text; the taxi driver's question is not directed at the mother, hence the pronoun for 2nd person would be used).

(52): *"Is she all right?" said the cabdriver doubtfully.*
"Yes, yes, she's fine. We just need to get out, thanks." (Tartt, p. 15)

Example 53 illustrates a repetitive structure (questions by one of the characters) of repetitive content (inquiring after the other character's condition) from one speaker's point of view. The reader is likely to infer that all similar questions are asked by the same speaker (i.e. Dora).

(53): — *Měl jste dlouhou cestu? vyzvíдалa Dora a tvářila se přitom, jako by jí to přišlo na jazyk jen tak, aby řeč nestála.*
— *Nejste po cestě unavený? Surmena vám uvaří čaj z jitrocele, ten vám udělá dobře!*
— *A cože jste takový smutný? To vás něco trápí? Na těle? Nebo na duši?* (Tučková, p. 19)

6.1 An uninterrupted string of direct speech with no reporting clause

A specific issue is an uninterrupted string of direct speech with no reporting clause. These instances of direct speech with no reporting clause ordered one after another in a sequence speed up the reading and are particularly useful to reproduce an urgent dialogue in a dramatic situation or a heated exchange of arguments. In theory, such strings may be unlimited in length (and some texts, such as Hakl's novel *Skutečná událost*, a book also considered when making a selection for this thesis, come very close to consisting exclusively of such an uninterrupted string of direct speech with no reporting clause) or very long, indeed; however, more traditional novels tend to limit these strings for the reader's convenience. As shown in Table 20, the maximum length is usually below 5 in average; the average length of all instances of direct speech with no reporting clause ranges between 1 and 2.5.

Table 20 below gives an overview of the maximum length of strings of direct speech with no reporting clause within the text.⁴⁴

⁴⁴ Only those instances of direct speech with no reporting clause were included where turn-taking took place (the speakers of the two instances of direct speech are not the same character) and the speech is not interrupted by a paragraph of narration. False reporting clauses were also excluded. An instance of direct speech with a false reporting clause constituted an interruption of the string (rightfully so, because even in a false reporting clause, the speaker is identified).

| Text / language | Maximum length of strings (number of paragraphs) |
|-----------------|--|
| Egan | 5 |
| Johnson | 2 |
| Tartt | 2 |
| English | 3 |
| Svěrák | 3 |
| Šindelka | 7 |
| Tučková | 4 |
| Czech | 4,67 |

Table 20: The longest uninterrupted string of direct speech with no reporting clause

The value indicating the average length of the strings of direct speech with no reporting clause, measured in the number of paragraphs, as presented in the examined texts is added in Table 21:

| Text / Language | DS with no RC (total) | 7 paragr aphs | 6 parag raphs | 5 parag raphs | 4 parag raphs | 3 parag raphs | 2 parag raphs | 1 paragra ph | Average |
|--------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------|
| Egan | 18 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 2.00 |
| Johnson | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 7 | 1.13 |
| Tartt | 13 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 1.30 |
| English – average | 13.33 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.33 | 0.00 | 0.33 | 2.33 | 6.00 | 1.48 |
| Svěrák | 30 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 16 | 1.36 |
| Šindelka | 29 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 7 | 2.42 |
| Tučková | 29 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 11 | 1.71 |
| Czech – average | 29.33 | 0.67 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 1.00 | 1.33 | 2.67 | 11.33 | 1.83 |

Table 21: Breakdown of all the uninterrupted strings of DS with no RC according to the number of paragraphs

Several significant results may be obtained from Table 21 above. First: Czech appears to prefer long strings of direct speech with no reporting clause more than English does. The structural reasons behind this fact may be that English generally lacks inflectional endings that mark the gender. As shown above, most communicative situations in the examined material take place between two interlocutors only (in these texts, moreover, 2 person scenes in direct speech without reporting clause are more common than in the English texts: 82.95% for Czech, respectively 67.50% for English). If their gender differs, the inflectional endings (where distinctive) identify the speaker and the addressee reliably. Another reason might be the use of the vocative. The vocative is more frequent in the Czech texts than in the English

texts, which may also help to explain why direct speech with no reporting clause is employed more often in Czech than in English.

There are, however, other aspects to consider when interpreting Tables 20 and 21 which are not of a structural nature. These are mostly bound to the character of the texts or the scenes depicted. The length may be influenced by the overall impression the author intends to leave in his or her readers. Thus, the longest string belonging to Šindelka's short story matches well with the style he adopts in his writing – the narrator is stylized as a cool, detached observer trying to let the characters talk, not to intervene, explain or apologize on their behalf to the reader and not to pass any judgement on them (and if so, then only implicitly). Employing a string as long as Šindelka's is a significant style marker. Unlike Šindelka's, Svěrák's strings of direct speech with no reporting clause are short. This matches the humorous, slow pace style of the story and of course the situation described in the story – a visit of an elderly man to a doctor. The narrator of Svěrák's text seems inclined to explain, add or comment on the direct speech; therefore little space is left for employing similar strings. Also the nature of the scenes depicted may be an important, if not a crucial factor for any decision concerning the presence or absence of a reporting clause. Tučková's text, similar to Svěrák's, is rather slow paced (early childhood of the protagonist); what makes it score higher in Table 20 is the fact that it contains several pointed and emotional discussions between two of the characters. Similarly, Tartt's text scored high because of several quick exchanges between the protagonist (who is also the narrator) and his mother, evoking constant bickering between them. Egan's text is again rather slower in pace with a few emotionally charged scenes. Surprisingly, Johnson's text scored the lowest, although it contains several action scenes, including kidnapping, death of the protagonist's mother and sinking of a ship; however, in terms of direct speech with no reporting clause it is remarkably poor. This is perhaps compensated for by a higher use of false reporting clauses.

7 False reporting clause

The false reporting clause is a term coined and introduced for the purposes of this thesis. It refers to a specific type of reporting clauses for which the following features are held typical:

The false reporting clause is positioned within the same paragraph as the direct speech. It is not embedded in the direct speech formally by means of punctuation: it cannot be considered a part of the same sentence as the reported clause. False reporting clauses serve a double function – they refer to the inner or outer world of the speaker, just as most of the narrator's sentences, and at the same time they serve the function of speaker identification, either directly or indirectly (typically, the speaker of the direct speech is also the subject in the false reporting clause but other syntactic functions are also possible). For the purposes of this thesis, a false reporting clause and a true reporting clause cannot co-occur with one reported clause. Should this situation happen, the function of identifying the speaker is considered to have been taken over by the true reporting clause, which is the basic tool for the identification of the speaker, and the presumed false reporting clause is considered to be simply a part of the narrative. Typically, the false reporting clause conveys an action which is a part of the communication, such as nonverbal signals as to how to interpret the message in quotation marks.

As implied by Table 2, false reporting clauses are rather rare in Czech. Only one of the authors makes use of it, and moreover, not very extensively at that. The rare occurrence of false reporting clauses in the selected Czech texts may be due to several reasons: either it is an imported element, a result of strong interference from English to Czech due to extensive translation which led to changes in Czech prosaic style, or it is a native element of lesser frequency which is less used in Czech due to the tolerance of Czech true reporting clauses to employ non-genuine reporting verbs. A third option, the one considered the most likely by the present writer, is that an originally native Czech element gained prominence due to the influence of original English literature style, either directly or through interference caused by enormous influx of English fiction, both translated and non-translated, on the Czech fiction market.

However, false reporting clauses may not be as rare in Czech if one of the criteria above is reconsidered– i.e., for it to be placed within the same paragraph (see Table 19). This phenomenon is illustrated in Example 54 below: there is a paragraph boundary between a sentence conveying nonverbal communication (posture and a series of gestures) and identifying the speaker at the same time, and the direct speech.

(54): *Dora chvíli tiše přešlapovala, pak ale váhavě přikývla a ukázala na vršek hory Kykule.*

— *Až tam nahoře, v lese. Vede tam modrá značka, podle ní přijdete až ke křížku a od něj uvidíte jedinou chalupu, tam bydlí bohyně. (Tučková, p. 18)*

Based on close examination of the material and also inspired by different conventions in Czech and English, the present writer is inclined to believe that there is a cline between narrative sentences and true reporting clauses, of which the false reporting clause is just one point on the scale.⁴⁵

In accordance with the scalar conception of various forms of reporting clauses, it is here believed that Example 54 represents a yet more distant case of transition between narrative sentences and reporting clauses; and therefore, Example 54 is considered a part of the narrative in this thesis rather than a false reporting clause.

A subtle transition sequence may be perceived between the poles of narrative and dialogue:

Narrative – False reporting clauses across paragraph boundaries (Example 54) – False reporting clauses (Example 55) – True reporting clauses with non-genuine reporting verbs (see Section 5.2.4, Example 12) – True reporting clauses with genuine reporting verbs (see Section 5.2.4, Example 10)

(55): *Gil looked shocked. “Not at all. Are you?” (Johnson, p. 28)*

By false reporting clause we yet again refer to phenomena such as those illustrated in Example 55. Their average frequency in the English texts is about 13% of all instances of all direct speech in the text, which is significantly less than the instances of direct speech with a reporting clause (almost 70%) and somewhat less than the instances of direct speech with no reporting clause (about 17%).

Semantically,

- a false reporting clause can express a feature of nonverbal communication, such as in Example 56, and this is in fact the most frequent use in the material examined (see Table 22);

(56): *“Someone stole my wallet. My ID is gone, and I have to catch a plane tomorrow morning. I’m just desperate!” She stared beseechingly at both of them. (Egan, p. 10)*

⁴⁵ The non-binary nature of reporting clauses is also noted by Pípalová (2012, p. 85): “...[T]he boundary [between different types of reporting clauses] is admittedly rather continuous.”

- a false reporting clause can refer to an action happening simultaneously with or as a result of the communication as in Example 57 or a circumstance accompanying the direct speech;

(57): *Officer So drank. “I don’t think old Gil’s used to a diet of millet cakes and sorghum soup.” (Johnson, p. 34)*

- it can also comment on the direct speech or comment on the speaker in general (including inner speech), such as Example 58;

(58): *“Lolloping?” So much of her talk was exotic to my ear, and lollop sounded like some horse term from her childhood: a lazy gallop maybe, some equine gait between a canter and a trot. (Tartt, p. 19)*

- or it can be used to indicate both the speaker and the addressee as in Example 59, especially if more than two characters are present on the scene.

(59): *Jun Do turned to Officer So. “There’s a man. He’s got a dog with him.” (Johnson, p. 27)*

The distribution of these features in the material is shown in Table 22 below. These features are non-exclusive (one false reporting clause might bear several semantic features), which is why the absolute values in the individual columns in Table 22 do not correspond to the total of all false reporting clauses found in the texts.

| Sample / Language | False reporting clauses – total | Nonverbal communication | | Simultaneous action | | Addressee identified | | Comment on speaker | |
|----------------------|--|----------------------------|--------|------------------------|--------|-------------------------|--------|-----------------------|--------|
| | | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % |
| Egan | 10 | 7 | 70.00% | 4 | 40.00% | 3 | 30.00% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Johnson | 11 | 7 | 63.64% | 5 | 45.45% | 2 | 18.18% | 0 | 0.00% |
| Tartt | 10 | 6 | 60.00% | 4 | 40.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 3 | 30.00% |
| English | 31 | 20 | 64.52% | 13 | 41.94% | 5 | 16.13% | 3 | 9.68% |
| Šindelka | 5 | 1 | 20.00% | 2 | 40.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 2 | 40.00% |

Table 22: Distribution of various semantic aspects in false reporting clauses

The distribution of the semantic aspects in the four texts seems to be rather balanced with several exceptions to this claim, but the examined samples do not contain enough false reporting clauses to reach a convincing conclusion. Šindelka’s and Tartt’s characters seem to comment on the speaker more frequently than the protagonists of the other two texts. This may be due to the fact that both are – unlike the other texts – first-person narratives. In the first-person narrative texts by Šindelka and Tartt, the personal narrator may be more prone to present opinions already formed to the reader, while in third-person narrative, both Egan and

Johnson seem to prefer to drop hints (in form of nonverbal signals) and leave it to the reader to pass judgement or form an opinion on the characters.

With regard to the scale presented above in this section and based on the data shown in Table 22, differences may be identified between the false reporting clause conveying nonverbal communication and the false reporting clause conveying simultaneous action or circumstances. It seems that the former type is more central and closer to the true reporting speech. A false reporting clause conveying nonverbal communication refers more tightly to the communication and its conversion to the narrative proper seems less likely than that of the latter type. False reporting clauses commenting on the speaker or the outside world seem to display certain similarities with free indirect speech (see Section 2.2.2).

7.1 Position of a false reporting clause

The position of a false reporting clause means the respective position of the reporting clause in respect to its reported clause. The position may be either initial, medial or final, or any combination thereof. Unlike with true reporting clauses (Section 5.6), there is no possibility to distinguish two medial positions.

In the examined material, there are 7 of 34 instances of direct speech with false reporting clauses (and no true reporting clause). Of these seven instances, there is 1 multiple initial false reporting clause, 1 multiple medial false reporting clause and 4 multiple final false reporting clauses. There is only one example of a true combination of false reporting clauses, a combination of an initial and medial position.

Multiple final false reporting clauses seem to gradually deviate from the original purpose of any reporting clause – to identify the speaker or to relate to the speaker. This could be seen in Example 60:

(60): *“Can I put some of these in?” He was holding up a packet of bath salts Sasha had taken from her best friend, Lizzie, a couple of years ago, before they’d stopped speaking. The salts were still in their polka-dot wrapping. They’d been deep in the middle of the pile, which had collapsed a little from the extraction. How had Alex even seen them?* (Egan, p. 18)

While the first of the false reporting clauses in Example 60 identifies the speaker performing an action while speaking, the general theme of the other sentences is “bath salts”. There seems to be a continuous transition from the “reportingness” in the first false reporting clause to the “narrativeness” in the other false reporting clauses.

The frequency of all reporting clauses is adduced in Table 23, with multiple sentences of a false reported clause in one position counted as a single unit.

| Sample / Language | Initial | | Medial | | Final | | Combination | | False reporting clauses | |
|----------------------|---------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|-------------|--------|----------------------------|---------|
| | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | abs. | % | total | % |
| Egan | 3 | 30.00% | 1 | 10.00% | 6 | 60.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 10 | 100.00% |
| Johnson | 9 | 81.82% | 2 | 18.18% | 0 | 0.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 11 | 100.00% |
| Tartt | 3 | 30.00% | 3 | 30.00% | 3 | 30.00% | 1 | 10.00% | 10 | 100.00% |
| English | 15 | 48.39% | 6 | 19.35% | 9 | 29.09% | 1 | 3.23% | 31 | 100.00% |
| Šindelka | 2 | 40.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 3 | 60.00% | 0 | 0.00% | 5 | 100.00% |

Table 23: Distribution of false reporting clauses in terms of their positions

It is worth highlighting that initial false reporting clauses are the most frequent type, although this is perhaps due to Johnson's preference for initially positioned reporting clauses (see Table 11). Unfortunately, any generalization based on this quantitative analysis is of limited value as the absolute number of false reporting clauses in the samples is too small.

A false reporting clause in the initial position often describes an action preceding to the utterance and involving the speaker and possibly the addressee (see Examples 57 and 59 above). One of the advantages of its use is that it identifies the reader prior to the utterance itself.

False reporting clauses in the medial position often inform about an action happening between utterances or during the act of uttering. In Example 61, a change of the primary addressee is signaled in the medially placed false reporting clause.

(61): *"The whole thing. But yeah."* He turned to her. *"Was it, like, concealed from view?"* (Egan, p. 13)

False reporting clauses in the final position often describe subsequent activities, or as in Example 60 above, describe an action simultaneous with the utterance.

8 Conclusion

The present thesis largely achieved its objective to provide a complex and contrastive description of reporting clauses in present-day fiction, although admittedly such a broad topic can hardly be exhausted. The thesis offers a broader conception of reporting clauses and reporting verbs, which enables a truly contrastive analysis.

After a short introduction, Chapter 2 presents a summary of the research conducted so far in the field of Czech and English reporting clauses. Chapter 3 describes the material and the method used for the analysis and Chapter 4 explains the elementary classification of the investigated instances of direct speech into three groups: direct speech with a true reporting clause, direct speech with no reporting clause and direct speech with a false reporting clause.

Chapter 5 attempted to show that there is a difference in the Czech and English reporting clauses beyond the lexical diversity in verbs, which is well described in the literature.

The analysed samples showed a higher tendency for structural simplicity in the English reporting clauses (61% of all true reporting clauses in the English sample and only 18% in the Czech sample have the simplest possible structure). Furthermore, Czech seems to allow a larger number of contextual synonyms realizing the subject in reporting clauses and also prefers substantival subjects to a greater extent. Czech also has a tendency to employ manner adjuncts more often than English (26% and 13% respectively).

The analysis of the verbs showed that Czech employs more diverse reporting verbs, often verbs other than the verbs of speaking, which English apparently does not tolerate. Another difference was found in the competition between verbs introducing questions in the reported clauses – in English the verb “ask” often competes with “say”, whereas in the Czech sample the role of the verbs “*ptát se/zeptat se*” [ask] and “*říci/říkat*” [say] seems mutually exclusive and the competing verbs in questions are “other” verbs.

The analysis confirmed that the Czech samples used more manner adjuncts in reporting clauses than the English samples (manner adjuncts were used in 28.57% relevant instances of Czech reporting clauses, whereas in English reporting clauses, manner adjuncts were used in only 12.50%). Both English and Czech use manner adjuncts more frequently than reporting verbs expressing the manner of speaking.

As to the use of objects expressing the addressee of the utterance, both languages use it scarcely in about 7% of the instances of direct speech with true reporting clauses and genuine reporting verbs. Compared to the English texts, the Czech samples showed greater preference

for the use of the vocative, a functionally similar means of identifying the addressee of the utterance (Czech: 20.41%; English: 2.56%).

Both the Czech and English texts prefer final position of reporting clauses, with medial-final reporting clauses (i.e., ended with a full stop, but followed by another section of the reported clause) scoring the second highest frequency in English while being less preferred in Czech.

The analysis, however, has also shown that there are significant differences between the individual authors and that many ascertained differences may be a consequence of individual choices (individual style) rather than of the style of the genre, the period, or the language. Many of the results would thus require verification on a larger sample. Furthermore, it is also important to bear in mind that style is rarely a fixed, non-fluid phenomenon, in other words, that reporting clauses are undergoing dynamic changes in time. This conclusion seems to be underlined by the rather different results obtained by Pípalová in her samples consisting of older fiction.

The dynamic changes appear to be particularly well demonstrable on Šindelka's text as opposed to those by Svěrák and Tučková. Šindelka's fiction (in terms of reporting clauses) appears to be more modern and closer to the style of Anglo-American fiction, which can be illustrated by the higher frequency of the verbs "*řici*" and "*říkat*" [*say*] in his fiction and by the higher frequency of the simplest syntactic structure of his reporting clauses. This palpable difference in style between Šindelka on one hand and Tučková and Svěrák on the other hand might indicate that the original Czech fiction style is enriched by certain features of reporting clauses which are presumably less usual in earlier domestic fiction and which seems to be closer to the Anglo-American tradition. Czech literary style seems rather tolerant towards such developments.

Chapter 6 examined direct speech with no reporting clause. This is the second most frequent type in both languages after direct speech with a true reporting clause, and it is more frequent in Czech (33.77%) than in English (17.80%). The chapter studies the situations where the reporting clause is omitted. The most prominent means of speaker identification is the principle of turn-taking across paragraphs, which is effective especially in scenes with only two speakers (85.14% of all instances of direct speech with no reporting clause in the Czech samples and 92.59% in the English samples). Other examined means of speaker identification (such as vocatives) were significantly less frequent. Furthermore, the phenomenon of the uninterrupted string of direct speech with no reporting clause was scrutinized. Such a string is, in average, longer in Czech (1.83 turns) than in English (1.48

turns). This difference in the use of direct speech with no reporting clause is explained by the abundance of morphological endings and higher use of vocatives in Czech, which make reporting clauses redundant.

Chapter 7 examined the special case of false reporting clauses. This form of reporting clauses differs from true reporting clauses examined in Chapter 5 in punctuation: whereas there is a secondary boundary mark between a true reporting clause and a reported clause, the false reporting clause and the reported clauses are separated by means of a primary terminal. This type of reporting clauses appears to be typical of English, with only few examples attested in one of the Czech samples (Šindelka). Semantically, most of the instances of false reporting clauses describe non-verbal communication (such as “he smiled”) or an action happening simultaneously with the speech. In terms of their position, they are primarily placed initially (48% in English) or finally (29% in English). However, the examined samples contained only a limited number of false reporting clauses, which does not permit a wider generalization.

The results stated in the individual sections of the thesis seem to corroborate the original claim which was the starting point of the research: Czech true reporting clauses aim at diversity, whereas English reporting clauses strive to achieve inconspicuousness. These tendencies were observed in and supported with comprehensive data sets. Apart from that, a parallel was drawn between English false reporting clauses and Czech true reporting clauses with non-genuine reporting verbs.

Some of the conclusions of this thesis are based on relatively limited data. In order to gain certainty that these conclusions represent general features of reporting clauses in the examined languages and cultures, it is necessary to perform the analysis on an at least three times larger data set which would include more fiction writers.

The obtained results were compared, where feasible, with the data provided in a study by Pípalová so as to verify them, although Pípalová’s results did not always match those presented in this thesis. In order to accommodate the differences between the present thesis based on recent fiction and Pípalová’s study based on older fiction, a diachronic perspective was hinted at throughout the thesis. It would be an exciting direction of further research to examine the transformation of reporting clauses, starting from the second half of the twentieth century up to the present day.

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Resumé

Tato diplomová práce nabízí kontrastivní pohled na uvozovací věty v původní české a americké krásné literatuře. Od řady podobných studií se liší tím, že se zabývá výlučně nepřekládovými texty a pozornost zaměřuje na odhalení normy v daném jazyce, nakolik je to možné vzhledem k individuálním zvláštěnostem autorského stylu, nikoliv na postižení interference při překladu z jiného jazyka.

Materiál, který byl podroben analýze, sestává ze tří úryvků z českých a tří úryvků z amerických prozaických děl a celkově bylo excerpováno 235 anglických a 270 českých dokladů přímé řeči.

Diplomová práce se pokouší o širší definici uvozovacích vět; toto širší pojetí je nutným předpokladem pro srovnávání dvou velice odlišných strategií uplatňovaných v americké a české próze. Definice je funkční: za uvozovací větu se považuje takový materiální jazykový prostředek, který (byť vágně) identifikuje mluvčího vlastní konvenčně značené přímé řeči, případně též adresáta a způsob promluvy. Klíčová úloha je v tomto pojetí přisouzena odstavci: má se za to, že není arbitrární, ale funkčně odděluje pásmo vypravěče od pásma postav. Veškeré jazykové projevy, které jsou přítomny v odstavci obsahujícím přímou řeč a nejsou přímou řečí, se považují za přechodové prvky mezi oběma výše uvedenými pásmy. Volnější přístup k odstavcům je uplatněn v českých textech, kde je zvykem zařazovat po uvozovací větě v iniciální pozici přerýv v podobě odstavce.

Takto byly v kapitole 4 stanoveny tři základní typy uvozovacích vět, kterým jsou věnovány kapitoly 5, 6 a 7.

Kapitola 5 se zabývá pravými uvozovacími větami, tj. větami, které v pojetí této práce tvoří jeden syntaktický celek (souvětí) s vlastní přímou řečí a od přímé řeči jsou odděleny čárkou nebo dvojtečkou nebo jinou nefinální interpunkcí. Odborná literatura pro češtinu předpokládá velkou rozmanitost a snahu o ozvláštnění, zatímco anglické uvozovací věty popisuje jako mechanické a nenápadné. Toto tvrzení se v kapitole 5 na několika místech potvrdilo.

Oddíl 5.1 se týká syntaktické složitosti pravých uvozovacích vět, tedy počtu vět holých bez rozvití, např. příslovným určením. V souladu s očekáváním byl zjištěn vysoký počet těchto holých vět uvozovacích v angličtině (60,98 %) a relativně nízký v češtině (18,08 %).

Oddíl 5.2 popisuje rozmanitost sloves v pravých větách uvozovacích. Pro jejich popis stanoví tři základní kategorie: *řici/říkat* [*say*], *ptát se/zeptat se* [*ask*] a „jiné“. Sloveso *řici/říkat* [*say*] se v češtině vyskytuje v 24,40 % případů, zatímco v angličtině ve 71,88 % případů; sloveso *ptát se/zeptat se* [*ask*] ve 12,50 % v češtině a v 18,13 % v angličtině a „jiná“

slovesa se v češtině vyskytují v 63,10 % případů a v angličtině v 10 % případů. Z těchto „jiných“ sloves se 31,25 % uvozovacích sloves vyskytuje ve všech třech anglických textech pouze jednou, zatímco jediný výskyt má v češtině 66,97 % všech „jiných“ sloves. Lexikální rozmanitost je tedy v češtině skutečně nepoměrně větší.

Dále se zkoumá funkční využití uvozovacích sloves v případě, že přímá řeč obsahuje otázku. V takovém případě je základním uvozovacím slovesem sloveso *ptát se/zeptat se* [ask] – v češtině ve 45,65 % případů, zatímco v angličtině v 69,05 % případů. Největšími konkurenty slovesa *ptát se/zeptat se* [ask] jsou pro češtinu slovesa z kategorie „jiných“ sloves, zatímco pro angličtinu je to sloveso *říci/říkat* [say], které se tak v angličtině stává univerzálním hyperonymem pro jakékoliv uvozovací sloveso.

V kategorii „jiných“ sloves je patrný ještě další rozdíl mezi češtinou a angličtinou, a sice že v češtině v této pozici běžně stojí sloveso jiné než verbum dicendi (též nepravé uvozovací sloveso), a to dokonce v 64,62 % případů – např. sloveso neverbální komunikace, sloveso vyjadřují činnost atp. Naopak v anglických textech nebyl žádný případ nepravého uvozovacího slovesa doložen. Pravá věta uvozovací s nepravým uvozovacím slovesem v češtině vykazuje četné paralely s nepravou větou uvozovací v angličtině: tyto shody byly v analyzovaném materiálu potvrzeny příklady obsahujícími sémanticky blízké výrazy.

V oddíle 5.3 byla provedena analýza toho, jaká je forma podmětu označujícího mluvčího v pravých uvozovacích větách. Mělo se za to, že angličtina se svými holými, nevýraznými uvozovacími větami bude dávat přednost jednoduchému podmětu, zatímco v češtině bude docházet k větší variaci podmětu. To se v zásadě potvrdilo, přesto převažoval podmět substantivní v obou jazycích (75,60 % v češtině a 58,13 % v angličtině) oproti podmětu zájmennému (angličtina) nebo nevyjádřenému (čeština). Zatímco angličtina však formu podmětu označující mluvčího v zásadě neobměňuje (v 98,93 % případů), čeština podmět variuje často (ve 40,94 %), a to tím, že základní, nejčastější formu označení obmění nebo nahradí jiným kontextovým synonymem. Svěrák, jeden ze zkoumaných autorů, dosáhl v tomto směru podstatně vyšších hodnot než ostatní dva autoři – i srovnání s výsledky studie Pípalové (2012) naznačuje, že tyto hodnoty patrně nejsou pro současnou českou prózu reprezentativní.

V oddíle 5.4 byla zkoumána četnost výskytu rozvíjejících příslovečných určení, zejména těch, která označují způsob promluvy a emoce mluvčího. Východiskem analýzy bylo tvrzení některých příruček pro spisovatele, např. příručky S. Kinga (2000), který americkým spisovatelům doporučuje tato příslovečná určení nepoužívat. Očekávala se tedy jejich omezená přítomnost v angličtině a naopak hojný výskyt v češtině. To se v zásadě potvrdilo:

v českých textech bylo zjištěno užití příslovečného určení v 28,57 % uvozovacích vět, zatímco v angličtině tomu tak bylo pouze v 12,50 % případů. Příslovečná určení se v angličtině nejčastěji (v 85 %) používala u základního slovesa *say* [říci], které je ale také v angličtině nejběžnějším uvozovacím slovesem, zatímco v češtině se příslovečná určení velice často vyskytovala jak se slovesem *říci/říkat* (43,33 %), tak s „jinými“ slovesy (36,67 %). Zkoumala se též preference vyjádření způsobu promluvy pomocí jednak sémanticky silného slovesa, jednak příslovečného určení. V obou jazycích jsou v tomto ohledu upřednostňována příslovečná určení (čeština: slovesa – 20 %, příslovečná určení – 28,57 %; angličtina: slovesa – 4,38 %, příslovečná určení – 12,50 %).

V oddíle 5.5 se zkoumá předmět, který referuje o adresátovi promluvy a který není obligatorní součástí slovesné reky, spolu s konkurenčním prostředkem, jímž je vokativ v přímé řeči. Užívá se například na začátku dialogu, kdy je třeba upřesnit čtenáři promlouvající postavy, ale také při změně scény, kdy některá postava ze scény odešla nebo naopak na ni přibyla. Předmět vyjadřující adresáta promluvy v pravé uvozovací větě s pravým uvozovacím slovesem se v obou jazycích vyskytuje zhruba v 7 % případů. Vokativ ve vlastní přímé řeči s pravou uvozovací větou a pravým uvozovacím slovesem se častěji vyskytuje v českých textech (20,41 %) než v anglických (2,56 %). Že se jedná o vzájemně si konkurující prostředky, potvrzuje i zcela zanedbatelný počet případů jejich souběžného výskytu a funkční využití takovýchto případů.

V oddíle 5.6 se zkoumá pozice uvozovací věty ve srovnání s vlastní přímou řečí. Rozděluje se na čtyři podtypy – iniciální, finální, vlastní mediální a mediálně-finální.

Iniciální uvozovací věta stojí před vlastní přímou řečí. Ve zkoumaném materiálu byla doložena v 18,08 % případů v češtině a v 10,37 % případů v angličtině. V češtině se jedná o druhý nejpočetnější typ, v angličtině o třetí nejpočetnější typ.

Finální uvozovací věta stojí za vlastní přímou řečí. V obou jazycích se jedná o nejfrekventovanější pozici. V češtině je zastoupena v 69,49 % případů, zatímco v angličtině v 43,90 % případů. Ve studii Pípalové však byly zjištěny ještě vyšší hodnoty (74,66 % pro češtinu a 71,34 % pro angličtinu). Rozdíl je zvláště patrný u anglických vzorků, kde zřejmě dochází k vývojovému přechodu od finální pozice k mediálně-finální.

Vlastní mediální pozice je vložena do vlastní přímé řeči a rozděluje ji na dvě části. Z obou stran je od vlastní přímé řeči oddělena interpunkcí, která neznačí konec souvětí (zejména čárkou). V obou jazycích se jedná o nejméně častý typ (7,32 % pro angličtinu, 3,39 % pro češtinu). Jeho nevýhodnost spočívá zřejmě v tom, že přerývá promluvu postavy a vstupuje mezi závislé syntaktické jednotky (např. mezi větu hlavní a větu vedlejší).

Mediálně-finální pozice je rovněž vložena do vlastní přímé řeči, ale zpravidla mezi samostatné syntaktické celky (věty). Zleva jí předchází interpunkční znaménko, které neznáčí konec souvětí (typicky čárka), zprava je od zbytku vlastní přímé řeči oddělena tečkou. Jedná se o třetí nejčastější typ v češtině (9,04 %) a druhý nejčastější typ v angličtině (38,41 %). Svou četností v angličtině již konkuruje finálnímu typu. Jeho výhodnost se projevuje zejména v dlouhých promluvách, kde umožňuje identifikovat adresáta dříve, než na samotném konci odstavce.

Rovněž byla provedena analýza závislosti přímého/invertovaného slovosledu u uvozovacích vět se substantivním podmětem na pozici těchto uvozovacích vět. Ačkoliv je český slovosled obecně volnější než anglický, vykazují oba jazyky, pokud jde o pozici podmětu a slovesa v pravých uvozovacích větách, slovosled do značné míry pevný. V iniciální pozici je inverze vzácná v češtině (4,17 %) i v angličtině (0 výskytů). V neiniciální pozici docházelo pak v češtině k inverzi podmětu a přísudku vždy (100 %), zatímco v angličtině zřídka (6,25 %).

Pípalová ve stejném výzkumu staršího materiálu dospěla k obdobným závěrům, s výjimkou frekvence invertovaného slovosledu v neiniciální pozici v angličtině. Ta podle její analýzy činila asi 70 % (oproti 6,25 % zjištěným v této diplomové práci). Může se jednat o vývojovou změnu anglických uvozovacích vět.

Další zkoumání se týkalo rozvitosti uvozovacích vět s ohledem na jejich různou pozici. Mělo se za to, že anglické věty budou vykazovat větší míru rozvitosti v iniciálních uvozovacích větách a naopak budou spíše holé v neiniciálních uvozovacích větách. Výsledky této tezi však neodpovídají. Iniciální věty jsou holé v 64,71 % případů v angličtině a v 9,38 % případů v češtině, zatímco v neiniciální pozici jsou holé v 60,54 % případů v angličtině a v 20,69 % případů v češtině. Tento výsledek je do značné míry zkreslen jedním anglickým textem (Johnson), který vykazuje výrazně vyšší frekvenci iniciálních holých vět než ostatní dva anglické texty.

Výše uvedené závěry v zásadě souhlasí s tezí, že české uvozovací věty směřují k rozmanitosti, zatímco anglické uvozovací věty k uniformitě. Tato rozmanitost/uniformita se projevuje takřka ve všech výše zmíněných oblastech.

V kapitole 6 byl zkoumán případ přímé řeči bez uvozovací věty. Tento jev má mnohem větší zastoupení ve zkoumaných českých textech (33,77 %) než v anglických (17,80 %). Klade se otázka, jak je možné identifikovat mluvčího v případě, že k tomu není použito základního nástroje, jakým je pravá nebo nepravá uvozovací věta. Byly nalezeny některé kontextové faktory či signály, které čtenářům identifikaci mluvčího usnadňují.

Nejběžnějším prostředkem identifikace se pak ukázal princip střídání mluvčích. Ten je vysoce efektivní zejména v situaci, kdy jsou na scéně přítomny pouze dvě postavy (ve všech analyzovaných textech mají scény se dvěma postavami jasnou převahu). Ke střídání mluvčích v anglických textech dochází ve scénách se dvěma postavami v 92,59 % případů přímé řeči bez uvozovací věty a v 85,14 % případů v českých textech. Mezi ostatní, spíše okrajové faktory umožňující rozpoznat promlouvající postavu v přímé řeči bez uvozovací věty patří používání vokativu, ať už v přímo v dané přímé řeči, nebo v předešlé replice (podle principu, že se posluchač stane následným mluvčím), a některé formální prostředky v přímé řeči (např. slovesné koncovky vyjadřující jmenný rod apod.). Nejčastěji se v analyzovaných textech kromě střídání mluvčího používají vokativy, v češtině pak výrazně častěji než v angličtině: 28,41 % ve zkoumaných českých příkladech a pouze 2,50 % v anglických dokladech.

Rovněž se v kapitole 6 zkoumá délka nepřetržitého řetězce vlastní přímé řeči bez uvozovacích vět. Průměrná délka takového řetězce byla delší v češtině (1,83 repliky) než v angličtině (1,48 repliky). To je patrně možné vysvětlit větším bohatstvím morfologických koncovek v češtině, které mohou v některých situacích posloužit k identifikaci mluvčích. Průměrná maximální délka řetězce činila 3 repliky v anglických textech a 4,67 v českých textech.

V kapitole 7 se diplomová práce zaměřuje na zvláštní, přechodový jev zde nazvaný nepravá věta uvozovací. Tento jev je běžný v anglických textech a méně běžný v českých textech. Od pravé věty uvozovací se liší interpunkcí: netvoří totiž s přímou řečí jeden syntaktický celek, byť je umístěna v téže odstavci. Je zpravidla započata velkým písmenem a ukončena tečkou (otazníkem, vykřičníkem apod.) jako ostatní věty z pásma vypravěče. Je však nápadné, že na rozdíl od jiných vět se úzce pojí s vlastní přímou řečí: označuje často různé formy neverbální komunikace nebo činnosti prováděné v průběhu promlouvání, může interpretovat přímou řeč nebo podávat svědectví o názorech a emocích mluvčího, jeho hodnocení nebo může být neznačenou přímou nebo nepřímou řečí. Důvodem, proč se tato forma v této práci chápe jako uvozovací věta, je mimo jiné i to, že je v mnoha ohledech podobná jednomu typu pravé uvozovací věty (pravá uvozovací věta s nepravým uvozovacím slovesem), který je běžný v češtině.

Její procentní zastoupení ve zkoumaném materiálu je 13,61 % v anglickém materiálu a 2,31 % v češtině. Dominuje pozice iniciální a finální.

Nepravá uvozovací věta je v češtině poměrně vzácná – její přítomnost byla zjištěna pouze u jednoho ze tří autorů, a to v nevelkém počtu. Je možné, že se její frekvence v českých

textech bude zvyšovat v důsledku velkého počtu beletristických překladů z angličtiny na českém trhu.

Práce do značné míry naplňuje svůj cíl nabídnout celkový kontrastivní přístup k uvozovacím větám v současných prozaických textech, byť téma takto široké zdaleka nevyčerpává. Rozšiřuje pojetí uvozovací věty i uvozovacích sloves tak, aby bylo možné provést kontrastivní analýzu, a nabízí metodu pro další bádání v této oblasti.

Řada závěrů prezentovaných v této práci vychází z relativně omezeného vzorku dat. Aby bylo možné získat jistotu, že se jedná o obecné rysy uvozovacích vět v daných jazycích a kulturách, bylo by třeba analýzu zopakovat na aspoň trojnásobném vzorku, který by zahrnoval větší počet autorů.

Jiný vzrušující směr bádání, který by navazoval na rozšířený výzkum současného stavu uvozovacích vět, pak představuje zkoumání jejich proměny v druhé polovině dvacátého století až do současnosti.

Appendix